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AUTHOR Olivier, Maurice
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ABSTRACT

This document is a review of literature on the educational change process; it is designed to detail the role of training in the process of dissemination in a changing climate of education. To do this, it gives attention to defining educational change. The document is divided into five chapters. Chapter one, entitled "Defining the Change Process--An Exercise in Gerrymandering," reviews different approaches to types and theories of change, change models, and phases of change. Chapter two, "People and the Change Process," covers leadership, institutional role, and organizational change, structure, and climate. Chapter three focuses its attack on training and the change process and considers inhibitive and facilitative views of training, an emerging definition of training, and some research studies on training and the change process. Chapter four, on instrumentalities of change, is divided into two sections: meetings that focus on diagnosing a situation and meetings that focus on altering it. Chapter five is a summary; it states that the literature reviewed contains little that is reliable and dependable for use by the practicing school administrator in the task of administrating for change. There is an 11-page bibliography. (JA)

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A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Training and the Change Process

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ROB-3, Room 3633
400 Maryland Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202

Submitted By:

Maurice Olivier
Assistant Director
Bureau of Educational Research and Testing Services
Department of Education
University of New Hampshire
Box Q
Durham, New Hampshire 03824

Order Number

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TASK ASSIGNMENT #4

The nature of the task assignment was as follows:

"In the changing of educational institutions what is the role of training in the process of dissemination and diffusion? Consideration should be given to such things as, What is the role of training vis-a-vis the change process; who are the key people who need training? Who, when changed, will change others? Are those ready and committed to change the only ones effective at bringing it about? And if so, how do people arrive at or get brought to such commitment? Are those ready and committed to change the only ones effective at bringing it about? And, if so, how do people arrive at or get brought to such a commitment?"

Institutional change deals with the transformation, alteration or substitution of an organization's (1) mission; (2) administrative structure; and (3) programs or processes.

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CHAPTER I

DEFINING THE CHANGE PROCESS -- AN EXERCISE IN GERRYMANDERING?

The gap between the social science scholar and the practitioner of educational administration is widening. While social scientists as a profession are not spending any sizable portion of their time learning how to change organizations, especially in the realm of interpersonal and group relations, the practitioners are so actively engaged. The temper of the times leaves them no other choice. Practitioners of all sorts, ranging from the one-shot consultant or operator to more stable administrators, are constantly engaged in the task of building and rebuilding organizations. Most of these practitioners know very little theoretically about the process of change. They go about it intuitively with the result of frequent organizational and social disorder, pain and frustration. While there has recently emerged an impressive body of literature on organizational theory and change, it is interesting to note how skillfully (perhaps intentionally or unintentionally) many of the writers have avoided the topic of planning and implementing change.

Types of Change

There are various ways of viewing the change process. It can be directed at three levels: "(1) individual; (2) the group; and (3) the social system" (Crow, Clark and Bennis). There are also various forms of change. Chin identifies the following: "(a) substitution of one element for another; (b) alternation of basic elements; (c) variations where

temporary oscillations occur in a system; (d) restructuring involving basic structural modification; and (e) value orientation requiring attitudinal or cultural changes." Social change may be defined as "the alteration in the systemic attributes of society and its sub-systems through the development of new systems and the alteration of old ones" (Beal and Bohlen, and Evans). It can also be understood as alterations in a social group's essential attitudes and beliefs whereby new patterns or systems emerge from the present ones or essentially new ones are developed (Medlin, Carpenter and Cave). Some authors view the process of social change as the final master process in all social systems and the goal of all innovative programs (Bertrand and Bhola). Social change theory may be regarded as an "organization of the facts involved in the collective utilization of novelty in terms of collective facilitation of some desired or recognized ends and in terms of the measured dimensions or parameters of action" (Meadows and Rogers).

Barnett defines change as "any thought, behavior, or thing that is new because it is qualitatively different from existing forms." For him, the essence of change "lies in the restructuring of the parts so that a new pattern results, a pattern the distinctness of which cannot be characterized merely in terms of an increase or decrease in the number of its component elements." On the other hand, Rogers defines change as an "idea perceived as new by the individual considering adoption of it." Bhola defines it as "a concept, an attitude, a tool or two or more of these together introduced to an individual, group, institution or culture

that had not functionally incorporated it before." Beal and Bohlen define it as "a change which involves not only a change in materials, but also a complex of changes with regard to their use." Other researchers draw a distinction between conception and innovation on the basis that conception occurs when a clear concept of a new device, idea or effect is apparent while innovation occurs when the device, idea or effect is operationalized (O'Connell and Loellbach).

According to Bratten and Corey, change as defined above produces "a kind of one shot, event-oriented 'thingyness' that focuses on the problem of getting a discrete change installed, accepted and used" and regard change as "an unusual, novel, periodic event interposed between periods of organizational stability."

Although Gallaher uses the word innovation rather than change, he uses it as only one of three inter-related processes of culture change:

(1) Innovation, the process whereby a new element of culture or combination of events is made available to a group;

(2) Dissemination, the process whereby an innovation comes to be shared;

(3) Integration, the process whereby the innovation becomes mutually adjusted to other elements in the culture.

Gallaher goes on and defines two general types of change:

(1) Changes in the culture of one society in contact with the other;

(2) Changes in a society which are internally derived as through invention and discovery.

He defines a form of the later, directed change, as a "structured situation in which an advocate interfers actively and purposively with the culture of a potential adopter."

Bennis identifies eight types of change by focusing on the relationship between a "change agent" and a client system:

(1) Planned change -- entails mutual goal setting, an equal power ratio, and deliberateness on the part of both sides.

(2) Indoctrination -- involves mutual goal setting, and is deliberate, but it also involves an inbalance power ratio.

(3) Coercive change -- is characterized by non-mutual goal setting, an inbalance power ratio, and one-sided deliberateness.

(4) Technocratic change -- relies upon the clients definition of his problem and upon the agent's collection and interpretation of the data as the solution.

(5) Interactional change -- is characterized by mutual goal setting, a fairly equal power ratio, but no deliberateness on either side of the relationship.

(6) Socialization change -- has a direct kinship with hierarchial controls.

(7) Emulative change -- is characterized by identification with the emulation of power figures by subordinates.

(8) Natural change -- refers to that class of changes brought about with no apparent deliberateness and no goal setting on the part of those involved.

Guba describes three types of change:

(1) Evolutionary -- without conscious direction or reference to some kind of design. Not random, but not planned or intended.

(2) Homeostatis or Reactive -- under conscious direction and sometimes with very immediate effects; in response to some specific trigering; mainly automatically and instinctively rather than thoughtfully guided.

(3) Neomobilistic or Planned -- results from conscious direction and may be trigered by some specific factor that moves the system in a new direction; goes on the assumption that more reaction is not enough and that the system may be so out of balance and an entirely new organization, structure, or mechanism is required; It is by its very nature always pre-planned and risky.[1]

Chin defines planned change as a "deliberate and collaborative process involving a 'change agent' and a client system that are brought together to solve a problem or to plan and attain an improved state of functioning in the clients system by utilizing and impiying valid knowledge." Jung and Lippitt define it as "the inclusion of certain basic problem solving phases in adapting to an action concerned." Planned change has been viewed as reducing the number of possible directions for change by emphasizing a few (Gallaher and Barbe and Hall).

Culbertson draws an interesting distinction between planning for change and planned change. He argues that "planning for change is not necessarily planned change because control of designated activities may not be accomplished." He, therefore, concludes that "an essential part of planned change involves the use and management of conflict." Miles argues that successful efforts at planned change must take as a primary target the improvement of organizational health which he defines as "the school system's ability not only to function effectively, but to develop and grow into a more fully functional system."

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[1] The three types of change described by Guba have been incorporated in the basic evaluation scheme known as CIPP; See Stufflebeam, Foley, Gephart, Guba, Hammond, Merriam, and Provus, Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making 1971.

Interestingly, the fact that there is currently a great deal of interest in planned educational change, as evidenced by the number of professional publications and articles addressed to the topic, does not mean that there is agreement as to whether schools should attempt or be the target of planned change efforts. First of all, there is the philosophical and ethical dilemma of whether in a democratic social order it is appropriate or desirable for educators to promote planned change (Meierhenry). Such a dilemma denotes the concern with both the ends sought and the means used (Corey). Secondly, any discussion of planned educational change must take into account the functions schools perform, for as Merton noted in 1957 "to seek social change without due recognition of the manifest and latent functions performed by the social organization undergoing change is to indulge in social ritual rather than social engineering."

Katz and Kahn depict schools as "performing maintenance functions for society, that is perpetuating and preserving traditional societal values." Accepting this line of reasoning, Hills depicts the function of the educational enterprise as maintaining the values of society and concludes "the structure of that enterprise is, in turn, related to the function performed for society, and there is, it seems, no changing to one without changing the other." In this same vein, Zeigler states, "educational institutions tend to mirror the political environment in which they find themselves, and, therefore, to not, because of their very nature contribute to political change." Moreover, institutional constraints within the educational enterprise itself, such as the bureaucratic nature

of educational organizations (Miles), which preclude consideration of designs that would encourage innovative behavior are bound up with such conceptions of education and its relationship to society (Anderson, Bowman, and Barnett). One author flatly states that schools should serve as a vehicle for effecting changes in society (Silberman). Miller tries to reconcile these divergent viewpoints by stating, "education serves both as a leader and a follower of society and operating somewhere between the challenge of George Count's DARE THE SCHOOL BUILD A NEW SOCIAL ORDER? (1932) and Henry Steele Commangers "schools reflect society thesis" (1950).

Some authors feel that the traditional role fo the school as a stabilizer in society and preserver of heritage and values is changing. But that the administrative structure remains geared to maintenance activities, resisting change and avoiding conflict (MacKenzie, Lewin, and Harris). The problem may appear to be a financial one, but even when money is available for change schools are likely, it is argued, to do more of the same. A study of new programs for disadvantaged children which found that most programs followed tradltional educational patterns and practices corrobates this view (Jordan).

There is disagreement about the meaning and efficacy of planned change. Muessig interprets planned change in three ways, while placing a value judgment on each interpretation. Clark argues that educators don't understand what planned change means, and therefore, view the "fit and start" pattern as the natural order of things in education. On the other hand, there are those who argue that evolutionary or homeostatic changes

are adequate to produce the educational improvements that are needed (Guba). Others argue against planned change on the grounds that it will result in the creation of innovations which the schools will utilize by inventing needs (Bhola, Blanke). Herzog criticizes planned change on three grounds. He feels that most approaches to the concept are (1) naively "profession-o-centric" (2) view schools as objects to be manipulated, and (3) fail to recognize that most people are attracted to whatever they are currently doing because they believe in the value of it, not because they are resistant to change.

Theory of Change?

Theory is composed of both systematic and doctrine elements which are critical in providing frames of reference for investigating, testing and evaluation. Technical language, technological tools, concepts, empirical relationships, and normitive considerations, all of which determine quality of theory and pattern its descriptions, are seemingly relatively weak with regard to any hope for the development of a theory for change.

Jones very bluntly points out that a basic reality is that there exists virtually no theory or theories. The few attractive concepts have evolved which have been described and in a few rare cases tried out. A host of studies have been written on change, but only a few have been reduced to some theoretical constructs. Jones, however, views model making as a common practice, and this may eventually lead to some theory making.

Against these remarks, the task ahead is clearly discernible: develop a constructive way to bring about change in organizations, with a

minimum amount of social pain and dysfunctionalism. Before this can be accomplished, however, there must of course exist a body of substansive and valid knowledge and a technology which can be applied in the resolution of problems in organizations. Until applied social scientists have these at their disposal, it will be extremely difficult for them to function as social engineers of change. At best, they will be clumsy practitioners, basing their actions more upon "education hunches" than reliable and scientific theories.

Change Models

The following statement by McClelland provides an insightful overview of existing change models:

> "it is premature to do more than wish for a general model, let alone a general theory of change and changing. Accordingly, researchers have developed a variety of sub-system models, each of which deals with some aspect of the change process or with some specific setting. Quite understandably, they vary widely in comprehensiveness, complexity, and elegance."

In a lighter vein, the writer recalls being involved in a conversation at a recently held conference whereby several "change agents" were describing "a model building weekend." It was reported to the writer, in a very sincere fashion, that the group had developed approximately 67 change models during the short period of time they were together for the weekend!! Thus, to lend credence to McClelland's statement and to indicate the diversity of change models, only those models which presently

contain substance in the literature will be summarized.

Bennis identifies three general classes of change models:

(1) Equilibrium Models. Such models have as their target defensive social structures, the mechanisms they utilize involve tension release through anxiety reduction, and their normative goal is conflict/free social structures.

(2) Organic Models. These models have as their target problem solving activities, the mechanisms they utilize involve power redistribution and conflict resolution, and their normative goal is team management.

(3) Developmental Models. These models have as their target interpersonal competence, the mechanism they utilize involve transformation of values and their normative goal is authentic relationship.

Chin describes four general classes of change models:

(1) Systems and Component Models. A system model allows for change to come from components inside the system through invention and innovation. A system mode of conceptualizing assumes a relatively leak-tight boundary for the elements under consideration, a close degree of interrelationship and interdependency of these elements, an arrangement whereby the elements are in some sort of balance or equilibrium.

(2) Organic Systems Model. In the conceptual model of organic systems, it is assumed that the system has more channels of commerce with its immediate environs. The phenomena represents an open system. Boundaries are not so tight, but interdependency is still an important property of the system's components. Equilibrium is still the keystone, but this equilibrium may be a shifting point, perhaps never achieved even in the ideal state. Stresses and strains arise from the inputs from outside the system. Adaptation to this environment requires that the system, in order to survive, engage in constant actions on, and responses to, the environment, and develop a feedback mechanism to steer and guide its behavior.

(3) Developmental Models. Developmental models are not bound by time as are the previous system models. In developmental models there are assumptions of direction of movement toward something or somewhere. At any point in time there are stages or phases which are to be replaced by other stages and phases. There are potentialities built into the system and there are forces that move the system from one stage to another and further on to its goal, unless impeded by some obstacle.

(4) Intersystem Models. Another variation of the system model is the intersystem conceptual model. Intersystem models use properties of two organic systems in direct and purposive contact with each other. One needs to specify the nature of the relationship, such as the connections, attractions, and rejections that create a relationship between the two systems.

McClelland describes two models under Chin's fourth category Intersystem Models:

(1) An interpersonal model which deals with anticedents, process and results.

(2) An interorganizational model which focuses on the concept of research through development to use.

Beal and Bohlen present a 34 step model of social change which focuses on the people involved, the social systems involved, and the stages or flow of social action. That model is very close to the elements Gephart emphasizes on the study of the educational change process: (1) actor variables; (2) action variables; and (3) the interaction between actor, action and actor/action variables.

Gallaher presents two change models viewed in terms of the role of the change advocate, the pragmatic model, and the utopic model:

(1) The model that I call the pragmatic advocate describes a role concerned mainly with creating a climate conducive to acceptance; the view of the culture change cycle is global, acceptance is to be achieved, but the processes of acceptance are accorded single importance. This model rests on the premise that success or failure in directed change is referable mainly to the advocate understanding of the content and internal organization of the pattern where change is sought.

(2) The utopic model defines the advocates role mainly as one of manipulation to gain the acceptance of an innovation; the view of the culture change cycle is myopic, it focuses almost exclusively on the act of acceptance. There is a basic premise that one can achieve results best by doing things to, or planning for, people rather than with them.

One of the first attempts to depict the process of change was undertaken by Lewin. He postulated three steps in the process, "unfreezing, moving, and freezing of the level." An equally famous conceptualization of the change process viewed in terms of adoption is provided by Rogers: "one, awareness; two, interest; three, evaluation; four, trial; and five, adoption." One author, however, denies that all five stages are necessary to postulate a change process and argues that awareness and adoption are necessary and sufficient (Mason). Loomis feels that change is a process which occurs in three stages: (1) initiation, (2) legitimization, and (3) congruence. Hobbs presents a similar formulation which includes the following stages: (1) a development of innovation, (2) diffusion of innovation, (3) legitimation or advocacy, (4) adoption, (5) adjustment or adaptation.

Some conceptualizations of the change process focus on the relationship between a "change agent" and client system. One of these is

the Lippitt-Watson-Westley model which postulates the following states: (1) the development of a need for change, (2) the establishment of a change relationship, (3) the clarification or diagnosis of a client systems problems, (4) the examination of alternative routes and goals; establishing goals and intentions of actions, (5) the transformation of intention into actual change actions, (6) the generalization and stabilization of change and (7) achieving a terminal relationship.

Similarly, the National Training Laboratories for Applied Behavioral Science postulates a model of plan change which has the following eight steps:

(1) Diagnosis of the problem of the client system

(2) Assessment of the motivation and capacity of the client system to change itself

(3) Assessment of the motivations and resources of the change agent

(4) Establishing and maintaining a working relationship with the client system

(5) Choosing the appropriate role

(6) Selecting appropriate change objectives and targets

(7) Providing support and encouragement for change behavior

(8) Termination or new continuity of helping relationship

Another process model of planned change which focuses on the relationship between a "change agent" and a client system is put forth by Buchanan:

(1) Clarify or develop the clients motivation to change

(2) Assess the change agent's potential helpfulness

(3) Establish effective relation between the change agent and the client system

(4) Clarify or diagnose the client system's problem

(5) Establish instrumental objectives for change

(6) Formulate plans for change

(7) Carry out plans for changes

(8) Generalize and stabilize changes

(9) Institutionalize plan development for self-renewal

Rubin focuses on the pre-installation process of innovation and depicts the following steps in that process:

(1) specifying the expected methods of the innovation

(2) judging the appropriateness of the innovation to the particular situation

(3) varifying the presence of conditions essential to the effective use of the innovation

(4) determining the necessary restraining of the professional staff

(5) determining the required materials

(6) anticipating the effects of the innovation on other aspects of the instructional program

(7) specifying necessary changes in the school organization

(8) establishing a systematic procedure for introducing an innovation

There are a number of theory into practice models of planned change. Most of these models, however, seem to be predicated on the assumption that change is a novel event interposed between periods of

organizational stability. The Clark-Guba theory into practice model focuses on the process related to and necessary for change in education. It tries to inter-relate the following: (1) research; (2) development which includes both a) invention and b) design; (3) diffusion, which includes both a) dissemination and b) demonstration; and, (4) adoption, which includes both a) trial and b) installation and c) institutionalization.

Clark and Guba have criticized university programs on the basis of the criteria suggested by this model. And, Guba has criticized the Illinois plan for a gift to children on the same basis. Guba tries to operationalize these processees in a change model which has the following elements: (1) a utilization arm; (2) a research arm; (3) an information arm; (4) a developmental arm; and, (5) a diffusion arm.

Gideonse presents a revised diversion of the Clark-Guba model and labels it "an output oriented model of research and development." In the model he tries to show the interrelationship of the following activities: (1) research; (2) development and (3) local school operations. Another model of planned change which is in the theory into practice framework was developed by Coughenour, a sociologist. There are four main elements in this model: (1) research; (2) an innovative system; (3) a system of communication and (4) linking with practitioners.

Havelock has developed two models of change, an agricultural model a medical model. The agricultural model includes the translation of her findings of scientists to departments of applied research within colleges of agriculture, to those associated with experimental farms and to the extension specialists who has frequent contacts with the county

agent who in turn is in touch with the farmer. Havelock's medical model is very similar to the agricultural one, except that it includes pharmaceutical houses as an additional avenue through doctors obtain much of their information. Miles describes a model of educational change which focuses on the following stages: (1) design; (2) awareness-interest; (3) evaluation and (4) initial-trial and post-trial.

The area of knowledge utilization is receiving increased attention from those interested in educational change and serves a fitting conclusion to this section. The model attempts to focus on and link scientific knowledge with knowledge of the educational setting throughout the following stages of the change process: (1) identification of a concern; (2) diagnosis of the situation; (3) formulating action alternatives; (4) feasibility testing of selected alternatives including training and evaluation and (5) adoption and diffusion of good alternatives.

Havelock and Benne view knowledge utilization as a system with a flow structure and an administrative structure, and as a process with motivational aspects, interpersonal and group membership issues, and technical issues. Lippitt describes six models for the use of scientific resources and knowledge:

(a) Models which import change resources from outside the system:

(1) Derivation of action designs from relevant research findings;

(2) Adoption of experimentally tested models of practice;

(3) Diffusion between practitioners.

(B) Procedures for development of needed knowledge resources which are within the system:

(4) Diagnostic team with feedback;

(5) Internal action research process;

(6) Training of consumers to be open to the use of science.

Phases of Change: Some Views

Rogers points out that dividing the process into phases is: "(1) consistant with the nature of the phenomena; (2) congruent with previous research findings; and (3) potentially useful for practical applications." He traces the development of the concept of stages, citing in particular the early work of Ryan and Gross and Wilkening. Ryan and Gross distinguish between "awareness," "conviction," "acceptance," and "complete adoption," of hybred seed corn. Wilkening, usually credited with the first use of the concept of stages in the process of adoption, described the process as one "composed of learning, deciding, and acting over a period of time." The adoption of a specific practice is not the result of a single decision to act but a series of actions and thought decisions. Rural sociologists, who have been responsible for most of the research and conceptualization of adoption phases, have more or less reached a consensus of on a five step process which include (1) awareness, (2) interest, (3) evaluation, (4) trial and (5) adoption.

A related field of effort, one which has developed separately from the field of rural sociology, is that of the study of phases in implementing change in social behavior and attitudes. Pioneer social

psychologist, Kurt Lewin, in his early studies of group decision and social change, described three major stages in the process of change: "unfreezing, moving, and freezing." Unfreezing describes the necessary initial phase in which the need for change is realized and a willingness to give up old ways of doing things is evidenced. Moving includes the activity involved in implementing change. And, freezing indicates the establishment and firm rooting of the new behavior in the life of the group. In the field of education, the concept of stages of change was implied; but, not specified in the early work of Mort and his colleagues. According to Mort, the process of innovation in education follows a "predictable pattern" including insight into a need, the introduction of a way of meeting the need, diffusion and adoption. In recent years, educational research and theory have drawn from both the rural sociology and the social psychology traditions; Miles for example, bases his discussion on stages of the work of Rogers; Lippitt, Watson, and Wessley derived the stages they described from the work of Lewin.

The research on the stages of change have involved many different types of innovations in a wide variety of adopting populations. It is not surprising, therefore, that different authors propose conceptualization of the change process which contain differing elements. Proposed classifications vary greatly in complexity and range in the two step "cognition behavior" models proposed by Mason and Pareek and Chattopadhyay, to the elaborate 10 stage model for social change described by Watson. According to Havelock, these discrepancies should not necessarily be regarded as disagreements, but rather should be recognized that different authors are considering different

types of change processees in different portions of the change processees. Upon closer consideration we realize that the four stages described by Mort are not a different way of describing the five stages observed by rural sociologist. We can speculate that Mort's final stage of adoption actually encompasses the entire five stage adoption process as described by Rogers and from earlier discussions about diffuser activity curves we can summarize that Mort's final stage of diffusion will proceed and overlap with the adoption stage. His first two stages, insight into need, and the introduction of a way of meeting the need, will presumably preceed any activity by the diffuser.

Many descriptions of the change process include stages preceeding diffusion and adoption: These additional stages describe the preparation of an innovation for use. Such preparation may in many cases, the undertaken by individuals outside the potential user system. A need may be recognized by outside resource persons, who take upon themselves the task of design and development in addition to dissemination of the innovative solution. The expected end result of this process will be adoption of the innovation by a population over a period of time as described by Rogers. A process such as this is proposed by Miles who adds an initial stage of design which includes research and development activities to Rogers stages. Miles points out that the agricultural studies on which Rogers reports again after an innovation had already been adequately designed; Miles would like to trace the change process from an earlier point in time.

The change process can take on quite a different aspect when a user system becomes active in solving its own process. Some authors trace

the phases of change starting with a need which is felt by a particular user system; this need is identified, diagnosed, and solved either by the user himself, or by a user in collaboration with outside resource persons. This type of change process may be initiated with a stage which Watson calls "felt dissatisfaction" and which McKenzie refers to as criticisms of the status quo. A series of steps may be taken which include research and development activities but which have the goal not of mass dissemination but of satisfaction of the needs of the individual system. Dissemination of the same solution to others may follow, but it is not of primary concern. However, if outside resourcers participate in the solving of a users problem, they may disseminate successful solutions to other clients who have problems similar to those of the initial client's system. Thus, some authors, even though they advocate change strategies which are primarily client oriented (e.g., Watson; Young, Jung and Lippitt) are nevertheless also interested in a final stage, that of dissemination of innovation to other groups. This is a sequence of change which is cited commonly in current literature on change in education.

PROBLEMS WITH TRANSLATION

The past decade has witnessed a proliferation of writings addressed to change in education, and a substantial increase in the number of projects designed to perfect educational change. As Jones pointed out there exists, however, "few scientifically developed, theoretically based and empirically tested and evaluated tools for use in a task of administering change." The promise of educational change has not been fulfilled in reality.

McGuire's observations of the literature on change summarizes very succintly what this all means to the practitioners. The literature, for the most part, "portrays change on a novel event interposed between periods of organizational stability." On the other hand, to the practicing school administrator, he does not have the luxury of viewing change as a novel event. He is involved daily in crisis decision-making which entails making the best of a set of less than satisfactory decisions. He must solve the plethora of immediate, "non-postponable" problems if he is to survive.

Emersed in the "name game," the practitioner is caught between various writers who use the same term to refer to different things and using different terms to refer to the same thing. Diffusion, dissemination, model, change, innovation, strategy and tactics, are a few of the terms which are frequently used in this manner. Moreover, in delineating the various phases in the change process, many writers tend to focus on a segment of the change process without indicating which segment is being explicated and/or imply that all segments are being explicated when in point of fact they are not.

Therefore, the practicing administrator who wishes to benefit from the insights of various writers faces the burdensome and time-consuming task of translating these insights into a common language that is meaningful to him. He is also frequently in a position of trying to use what he has read only to find out that what was read is not what the writer meant. When joined with "the immense quantity and inconsistant

nature of literature on change, these factors effectively preclude wide spread utilization of the literature by practitioners" (Maguire).

It is suggested that there is a great need to develop closer working relations between the practitioner who is engaged with educational change and the scholar who is interested in understanding and explaining organizational change. Further suggested is that the role of the researcher is not only to observe, record, and interpret the social phenomena of organizational change (a passive on-looker), but also to develop and apply concepts of social action to influence organizational change (an active participant). Until such a way-way bridge is constructed and heavily used, little useful knowledge will emerge in the advancement of our understanding of planned change in educational organizations.

CHAPTER 2

PEOPLE AND THE CHANGE PROCESS

Most of the literature reviewed in this report, makes claim to the fact that the educational system is on the verge of a very serious crisis. Many reasons are advanced for the growing tide of hostility against education. Tax payer rebellions are springing up, overtly or covertly, across the country against an archaic tax base, the largest percent of funds which go for education and for defense. Student dissent and open revolt against the war in Southeast Asia and the "establishment" in general, have led many to criticize educational institutions for failing to teach the proper moral values, respect for law and order, and perpetuation of our heritage and democratic traditions. Many of the schools of today do not resemble those attended by the vast number of adults in our society; they appear too lax, too progressive, too free, with no direction and a total lack of discipline. One could even stretch the point and say that many individuals who make up this anti-educational-intellectualistic movement are seeking a return to an era such as the Jacksonian period when there was a general disgust with politicians and the educational elite, and an idolizing of the virtues of the "common man". Perhaps the crisis is more subtle and less graphic than a "food crisis" or a "military crisis", but no less weighted with dangerous potentialities. The nature of the crisis is suggested by the

words change, adaptation and disparity. The consequent disparity -- taking many forms -- between educational systems and their environments seems to be the essence of the crisis in education.

To paraphrase Coombs, there are assorted specific causes for this disparity, but four in particular stand out. First, is the sharp increase in popular aspirations for education, which has led seige to existing schools and universities. Second is the accute scarcity of resources which has constrained educational systems from responding more fully in new demands. Third, is the inherent inertia of educational systems, which has caused them to respond too sluggishly in adapting their internal affairs to new external necessities even when resources have not been the main obstacle to adaptation. Fourth, is the inertia of societies themselves -- the heavy weight of traditional attitudes, religious customs, prestige and incentive patterns and institutional structures -- which have blocked them from making the optimum use of education and of educated manpower to foster national development.

This Chapter then, attempts to describe various organizational and individual variables associated with the process of change. The sections on Institutional Role and Organizational Change briefly describe, according to the literature, characteristics for new and emerging organizational responses to contemporary educational needs. The sections on Organizational Structure, Organizational Climate, School Administration, and Management, Authority and Leadership similarly describe characteristics

Coffiet has reported findings, conclusions, and recommendations that emerged from a study of functions and goals of the Oklahoma Higher Education board. Many individuals and groups were involved in the study. The process included a six hundred member citizen group, a special 140 member citizen advisory committee, 700 college faculty members, selected students from the Oklahoma colleges and universities, presidents from all Oklahoma colleges and alumni from various institutions. The process which was established for goal setting for Higher Education in Oklahoma typifies the great need for educational systems to take realistic looks at themselves. The process attempted to determine what kinds of post-high school opportunities should the state of Oklahoma provide, who should bear the cost, what should educational institutions do to support individual development, as well as solve social problems, and to promote cultural development in the state of Oklahoma.

In a series of papers edited by Minter the question of relationships between basic changes and values taking place in society and campus power conflicts was reviewed. Specifically, the papers address the following questions: "what are traditional and emerging value patterns which appear to be at the root of power conflicts? What are the interests of faculty and student minority group members, and administrators? What are the implication for roles of these groups on academic governence? How can college administrators deal effectively with competing aspirations and values of various campus and public groups?"

In another instance, the Colorado Commission on Higher Education, attempts to assess needs for higher education in the state with regard to enrollment projections, distribution of population, availability of extension courses, and the number of students from economically and educationally disadvantaged backgrounds. Additionally, the commission examined size and planned growth of each state institution. It has looked into and has discussed the purposes, organizations, and students of community colleges, state colleges and the university system. In the Denver Metropolitan area issues of coordination planning and governence are explored.

Baldridge has prepared an extensive bibliography which deals with a wide variety of organizational dynamics and is related to definitions of organizational change developed by Stanford's Center for Organizational Change Project. This definition, discussed in detail, focuses on delibrate change instituted to reformulate official policy.

One author indicates that "much of the student rebellion witnessed on campuses throughout the country was primarily attributed to the impersonality of academic institutions and up through the 1960's it was believed that problems could be solved through increased student participation on college and/or university committees." Although increased participation has met with some success, it is by no means any major reform in governence that is needed to make academic institutions more responsive to current needs. "Student representation has not really been representative of the student body. Membership of the governing bodies has been changed, but the nature and the function of the university has not been defined. Perhaps instead

* see Victor Baldridge."Organizational Change Processees: Bibliography with commentary." Sponsoring agency: Office of Education, Washington, D.C. National Center for Educational Research and Development. BR-5-0252. Publication Date: January, 1970.

of ignoring students, the university has been traditionally too protective. It's time for the university to withdraw as completely as possible from all non-academic areas of student life and transfer responsibility to the students. If this abandons some of its welfare role, it may be able to concentrate more on learning and teaching and more on possibly extending educational opportunity more widely. In rethinking the welfare function, universities should think of greater needs of the whole community besides its students". (Susman). Caffery points out that higher education is beset from all sides by criticism, fear, doubt, uncertainty, and prophecy of the damn. "While the young call for change, the faculty often resist any thing that might reduce their priveleges and prerogatives." Before alternative models to the present system of higher education can be considered, he argues that it is "useful to question present practices and past customs." Usefulness or desirability of each of these practices and traditions would dictate an alternative model for higher education. Among some of his proposed models are: "(1) experimental model university without walls, or city as an university; (2) a university whose main objective is relevance; (3) a university that provides education for leisure; (4) a university as shelter for part of the population and (5) A university as a producer of people who can make things work; (6) a university as training ground for survival. The university can be considered as a self-service market with an inspection station at each end, or as a factory or

processing plant. If alternative models are considered, nothing must be assumed as inherently virtuous or corrupt."

From the standpoint of the private liberal arts colleges, they are in trouble. Wise points out that "most of their presidents, board of trustees, and literature, tend to blame problems on external developments. Evidence indicates, however, that much blame falls on the colleges themselves. Many private colleges have failed to adopt to new pressures in the U.S. higher education system and have been unable to develop new concepts and purposes which elicit support of faculty, students, and the public."

Organizational Change

Although we have dealt quite extensively in the previous chapter on the issue of organizational change, (change models) several reviews of the literature are worth noting under this section. In a report prepared by Downy, an assessment was made of the present status of a small high school in Alberta, Canada. The objectives of the studies were as follows: "(1) to predict the probable future of rural high schools of various sizes and to generate a set of recommendations for improvement of educational opportunities provided by necessarily existant small high schools and their programs." Recommendations were made with respect to the following: "(1) the necessity and feasibility of maintaining all presently existing high schools small; (2) threatening of existant small high schools and implementing the proposed improvement. Specific recommendations were that a multi-campus high school system be established where they are geographically feasible throughout the province. And that ways and means

of capitalizing upon strengths of smallness and overcoming weaknesses of smallness be considered."

The consulting firm, Boose, Allen and Hamilton, Inc., detail major recommendations to improve the public, elementary and secondary school system in Wyoming. Recommendations were stated as follows: "(1) state should articulate the objectives to serve as guidelines for public school educators; (2) the State Department of Education should be administered through a management by objectives approach; (3) the state superintendent of public instruction should be an appointee rather than an elected position; (4) programs and services of the state department of education should be modified to meet public school objectives and needs of Wyoming citizens more adequately; (5) the state department of education should be structurally reorganized; (6) utilization of professional staff should be maximized; (7) coordination among school districts could be improved; (8) within districts to maintain a minimum amount of schools until the size by attendance would improve educational services of the districts; (9) personnel positions and salaries should match responsibilities and compare with those in other states; (10) multi-state and intra-state educational agencies should cooperate; and (11) cooperation of educational organizations within Wyoming should be sought.

Organizational Structure

One author presents a theoretical design to reduce hierarchial structures of school systems, thereby increasing leadership potential and

the effectiveness of teachers. Palardy believes that "the solution to the problem of tall institutional structures is basically to make them flat. The major characteristics of flat institutional structures are primarily the short chains of command and large spans of control. Accordingly, the teachers would then be three steps removed from the school board rather than six steps away. Instead of each person in authority being directly responsible for a relatively small number of subordinates as in tall structures, in flat structures, a person would be responsible for relatively a large number of people. This would, thereby permit teachers to have a better chance of acquiring a kind of institutional authority they are demanding and also more participation in decision-making. Also flat structures would offer increased opportunity for emergent leadership because of less control of subordinates by superiors."

A study conducted in the Houston area seems to lend credence to Palardy's notion of "flat organizational structures." This study reported by Carpenter was an attempt to determine if a relationship existed between formal structural types of school district organizations and perceived job satisfaction of classroom teachers. Six school districts within the greater Houston area with a population of 3,000 to 6,000 students were selected; sixty teachers responded to a questionnaire.

The evidence seemed to suggest that "relationships existed between formal organizational structural type organizations and perceived need satisfaction of classroom teachers." The tentative conclusion was

that "certain structural factors in formal school organizations affect perceptions of persons within the organization. The more administrative levels which exist between the superintendent's position and that of the classroom teacher, the lower the perceived satisfaction level of the teacher. Increasingly, the number of administrative levels and positions appear to adversely affect several areas considered important to professional job satisfaction." It was also recommended to reduce the administrative hierarchy in educational organizations. Additionally, it was recommended that usage be made of business and industrial research in educational organizations. And, that teachers with several years of experience be given more opportunity in decision-making.

Similarly, in another study an investigation was performed as to the relationships between properties of organizational structures and certain personality traits of organizational members and how resulting interaction between the two factors relates to the on-going climate of the elementary schools. The results of that study seem to indicate that teachers perceptions of organizational climate may be seen as functions of interplay between teachers personalities and the structure of the organization in which the individual functions.

Immegart collates some of the existing notions about the outcomes of organizational activities into an output analysis framework. From this scheme are drawn implications for organizational practice. First implication is that "organizations must engage in conscientious, long range planning." Another implication of the output analysis concept,

is that "organizations need to pay special attention to the matter of human competence." A third implication "for organizational communications is underscored by output analysis conceptualization." Further, it is implicit in output analysis conceptualization that "organizations must continually monitor or evaluate results of their work." Finally, output analysis scheme suggests that organizations should be "change oriented."

Harkin attempts to present a more appropriate role for the principal, one that denies his pedagogical superiority while emphasizing his importance in determining quality of behavior in the school. He, alone in the school, has capacity to permit definition of the organizational structure, to establish patterns of interaction which can afford congruence between individuals and the organization. Ultimately, the capacity of schools to meet demands of the turbulent society is determined by the quality of teacher behavior. Only to the extent that organizations devise means to attract and hold capable people and to release the potential that such people possess will that behavior be equal to the task.

In a paper presented at the Mountain Plains Institutes for New Presidents of Community Colleges, Bernthal examines several different types of organizations (charismatic, tradition, bureaucratic and task oriented) and the role of the leader in each. Although the leader here is being defined as a president of a community college, the statements could be applicable to any type of leader i.e. principal, within the public schools. In the modern task oriented system, "the leaders role can hardly be generalized as decision-making, direction and control, problem solving

inspiration, communication, or any other simple function. Rather, his role consists of realistically assessing environmental forces or constraints, articulating the organizations mission, prying for and securing resources for the functions of the organizations, providing internal coordination, and communication, and conflict resolution, and representing the organization to its constituency. The role of the leader in a charismatic organization is neither authoritarian nor democratic, but is flexible and adoptive. The leader must correctly assess forces in himself, in the organization and in the larger environment; he must then respond appropriately to these factors in each situation. He is neither a strong or a weak administrator, but is an integral part of a complex social system in which his primary mission is to integrate productivity with human and non-human resources into an organization working toward a common goal.

Organizational Climate

In a research study reported in 1970, Hilfiker explored some of the variables associated with the human environment in educational organizations in terms of how these variables might be related to innovativeness of the school systems. The educational system's innovativeness was determined through the use of rankings for each district from three district sources: district superintendent, professional staff of a system, and ranking derived from a panel of 10 experts. Selected sections of the instrument designed by the Cooperative Project in Educational Development (COPED) were used

to obtain data with regard to interpersonal behavior variables. The findings reported in this study suggest that "certain interpersonal relationship variables, within the context to the organizational climate may be among the most important variables to consider in initiating and maintaining innovations in educational organizations."

Another study was to ascertain by means of responses to the Edwards Personal Peference Schedule, if personality patterns of elementary school teachers in schools possessing open organizational climates differed significantly from those in elementary school teachers in schools having "closed organizational climates." Through the use of an organizational climate descriptive questionnaire, a group of teachers (71) from schools having open organizational climates and a group of teachers (99) from schools having closed organizational climates were identified. Tentative conclusions of the study were "that teachers from schools having open organizational climates scored significantly higher on personality variables of intraception and abasement. (Anderson)

Teacher perceptions of organizational climate were hypothesized to be related to their expectations that successful change would occur in their schools. Successful change was defined as the extent to which probability of desirable change exceeds that of undesirable change. Briefly, significant relationships were found forthe dimensions of climate that dealt with the principal teacher relations but not with those that dealt with teacher-teacher relations. It was speculated that teachers see themselves as having limited impact on change in schools.(Helsel).

Kenny attempted to determine the forces outside schools in the urban area that appear to influence the climate in the school organization. With a sample of 22 schools from the south, 47 schools from the east coast, 17 schools from the Mid-Continent, and 16 schools from the south west, 2,047 teachers were studied. Teachers in the study perceived a negative image of their schools; "73% of the 102 schools studied had closed climate when climate scores were computed." It was suggested that such a critical state seems to call for research on attitudes of schools in the urban area because schools there are very different. It was also determined that new kinds of evaluation in teaching strategies were in order.

One author emphasizes the selection of various organizational tactics in order to concentrate on a series of efforts all aimed at restructuring the way in which a school system relates itself to the world around it. Mogulof argues that "it seems less important now to put limited energies and monies into things like higher horizons, tutoring, student teacher ratios, counseling and other various additive and enrichment devices. Schools should breach its own walls to bring parents in, to better protect and connect students, to bring industry in, to share authority and give authority to students and collectively from minority communities." He argues that when this opening of the system occurs it will bring with it new "actors" on the educational scene.

In line with this trust, Appleberry discusses a study which was concerned with the relationship between pupil control ideology of educational

systems and openness of on-going climates of elementary schools. As was hypothesized, " "public elementary schools with relatively open climates were found to be significantly more humanistic in pupil control ideology than elementary schools with relatively closed climates." The hypothesis that principals serving in relatively open schools would be significantly more humanistic in pupil control ideology was not supported by the data. Also as hypothesized, teachers serving in relatively open schools were significantly more humanistic in their pupil control ideology than teachers in relatively closed schools.

One author feels that "the educational goal" is the creation of a desirable school environment involving teachers, students, curricula and pupil evaluation. Wallin suggests that "teacher strategies should include the development of pupil evaluation, school philosophy, goals and instructional patterns. An open climate which encourages honest dialogue must be maintained and teachers must have frequent opportunities to discuss how, when, and why learning takes place, as well as, what is worth teaching. 'Student strategies' include providing means for students to become honestly involved and assume responsibility for their own learning. ' 'Curriculum strategies' should include having a curriculum that can meet individual needs. 'Evaluation strategies' should include students becoming involved in evaluating and assessing their own progress. In terms of 'student strategies', Wallin mentions the Ruby-Thomas school plan for organizations whereby students use the team idea.

School Administration and Management

Pressman suggests that our present urban school systems cannot manage the problems of educating the poor and that "a new national complex of privately managed inner-city schools, divorced from the public educational establishment and independent of one another, is required." He further proposes that this should serve as a large scale demonstration of what "good schools" can do for large numbers of inner-city students.

Results of a study conducted by Yee indicate that "pupils and principals ratings of teachers lack significant relationship. However, teachers and principals attitudes toward children correlate positively. In schools with middle class pupils, the principals ratings of teachers correlate positively with teachers Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory attitudes toward children. In schools serving lower class pupils, such variables tended to correlate negatively. The significant differences between the schools rating and those dealing with principals rating of teachers discipline, merit and pupils, teachers ratings suggest that teachers value and reward contrasting teachers behaviors. In the middle class situation, principals rate superior those teachers who express negative affective attitudes toward pupils.

Attitude toward change held by principals is not necessarily related to the amount of innovation in a school. According to Wiens, "data suggest that principals who are influential in promoting or preventing change are different in several ways from non-influential principals. Influential principals tend to be: (1) older; (2) have more education;

(3) have more than one principalship; (4) more aware of informal organizations in their schools." Data also shows that "the vice-principals or assistant principals are more influential than is generally recognized." Wiens suggests that these are important implications for administrators in particular, principals.

A leadership study in which major hypotheses were not supported has provided some interesting food for thought for the practicing school principals relative to their vital principal-staff relationships. A replication effort of some earlier research in subordinate behavior reported by Fred Fiedler has investigated relationships between "psychological distance" of school principals and organizational effectiveness of schools as measured by selected dimensions of the Halpin and Croffs. Contrary to Fiedler's earlier positive results obtained primarily from task oriented groups, "maintenance of psychologically distant relationships with their professional staff by principals correlated negatively with ongoing effectiveness measures. The strength of these negative relationships was especially strong for Negro schools. Results of the studies and subsequent discussions generated by them seem to be timely for current emphasis upon professionalization of the teaching role and the impact of this trend upon the principal-staff relationships in our public schools.

Bowlan argues very strongly for inter-relating organizational patterns of administration that would start with the student and feed back to the student. Professional educators at all levels should be willing to

assume new roles and assist in the creation of new practices within the administrative levels of the organization.

The recent movement on educational accountability and its implications is the topic of conversation in most educational circles of today. What educational accountability means for educational administrators is perhaps at this point and time very hard to predict. Many, however, have expressed concern. Briner asks the questions, "what makes education accountable? Who determines what is being done in schools? Who answers for its instructional and management problems? He mentions that "historically, educational policy and administration have been publics business, but also concerned with the problems of education are the school board members, legislatures, congressmen and other school spokesmen. Accountability in education must be the result of rational understanding and communication between the public and educators about discharging the responsibility for determining educational purpose, defining function, judging results, and taking corrective actions to improve learning." Localized popular participation--give-and-take between public and educators is still perhaps the most productive way to determine educational policy and administration. Briner also feels "that schools are the peoples business. Accountability as only a professional exercise is unworkable. Accountability combining the community and the educator as a political exercise is workable."

Authority

Authority is seldom discussed by proponents of educational reform,

except as something to be abolished. In an article by Benne he analyzes the concept of authority and reasons for its neglect by philosophers and its disrepute among educators. He describes two types of authority, "expert authority and rule authority." He proposes a third type of authority which he calls "anthropogogical authority" which may provide a way of describing the relationship of students, teachers, and community in a more vital and relevant model of education.

Teacher power and student power movements have recently occupied the spotlight in educational circles as well as national and local newspapers.

What are some of the foundational reasons causing these movements? McAndrews suggests that "teacher protests is in the desire to increase salaries and physical working conditions and they are now understanding an area of educational policy decisions." Student protests have also centered on individual's right to participate in formulation of policy by which they will be affected. He feels that "at this point and time in policy struggle, protesting power groups would do well if they logically analyzed the true nature of educational policy. A nature which is totally legislative. He feels power in education will move to the state and federal levels and recognition of this fact by power groups will produce further steps toward unified action on all levels. Action will deviate from the former ruralistic consensus politics of policy formation and will place greater emphasis on conflict resolution methods of educational policies."

The possibility of a relationship between authoritarianism and morale of teachers and authoritarian levels of their administrators is considered in a study by Gubser. Significant relationships were reported. "The factor of age consistantly showed a significant influence on other variables. Older teachers scored much higher in morale factors and authoritarianism than did other teachers." Conclusion was to suspect a selection process in which anti-authoritarian teachers leave teaching. Implications of such a selection process for education in general, and classroom learning in particular, are obvious.

Leadership

Five suburban superintendents were interviewed by a parent from a school district regarding the extent to which each of the five systems was promoting intergroup education. The questionnaires which were designed and administered by the parent attempted to quantify and catagorize attempts at improving intergroup education. However, answers provided by superintendents yielded a considerable amount of information about their own value and behavior patterns and how these patterns were namifested in their professional capacities. The investigation focused on intergroup education in relationship to administration, curriculum materials, interpersonal relations, student contacts, and further plans for improvement, inservice training of teachers, and personnel practices and policies. "Investigations disclose that nothing was being done that would prepare students to cope with numerous social issues facing them in the years ahead. The most crucial decision now facing the suburban superintendents in the Milwaukee

area is choosing between a role as an administrator or a role as an educational leader. (Coldman)

Sensing need for change has become one important function of educational leaders. Timing of a sequence of actions is as important as identification of programs to be undertaken. Hamilton argues "that educational leaders should be trained to become increasingly aware of the process and means of sensitivity to mood, timing and blending of forces. Hamilton suggests that "a well prepared instructional specialist must understand the need for involvement of the staff, must possess skills to help groups state achievable objectives and must know how to bring together many elements that make a useful instructional package including suggested processes, materials and evaluation techniques." Instructional leaders are encouraged to become students of society which schools serve. Currently the greatest need of supervisors and curriculum workers is toward the development of skills in identifying problem base perspective involving direct application of conceptual insight into contempory issues of educational policy and leadership.

With the women's liberation movement in vogue these days, one would indeed wonder whether there is any justification in the claim that men are better suited than women to the role of secondary school principalship on the basis of behavior as leaders. Morsink reports a study whereby fifteen men and fifteen women principals were compared in leader behavior as perceived by their faculty members. Ratings on certain dimensions of

leader behavior suggested that men and women were not perceived by subordinates to behave in any significantly different manner." There was no justification in the statement that men behave more appropriately than women as secondary school principals. Even though on several dimensions women received higher scores, "it cannot be concluded that women behave more appropriately than men on these dimensions." On the basis of these findings favoring the utilization of men or women will depend on definition of leader. Nothing in the findings suggests any valid reasons for not employing women as secondary school principals.

Theorists and practitioners in educational administration have been devoting increased attention to reconceptualization of the role of administration in secondary schools. In an article by McDonough a study is discussed which was made on assistant principals. Various aspects of the assistant principalship and particular aspects of leadership were studied. In this study "assistant principals felt they did share in the leadership role of their schools and listed various ways in which this was accomplished." The study also suggested, that "common learning about situational and shared leadership gained from studies in group dynamics and sensitivity training haven't completely permeated practice of ordinary school settings especially in the administrative sense. Vast talent of resevoirs of assistant principals are seemingly not being recognized for ability and leadership potential they would exert."

Sergiovanni explores the relationship between need orientation of 227 teachers and their preferences for leadership style in principals.

The choice motivator scale was used to differentiate between teachers whose needs orientation were described as "hygenic" and teachers whose needs orientation were described as "motivator". The hypothesis was that the style preference would vary with need orientations of teachers but the findings indicated "that regardless of need orientation type, teachers prefered integrative leadership styles characterized by initiating structure and consideration."

CHAPTER 3

TRAINING AND THE CHANGE PROCESS

Although the term "training" invariably brings to mind pre-service training activities, in reality the intellectual and practical development of educators should occur along a continuum beginning with the decision to enter teaching and ending only upon permanent retirement. Unfortunately, we tend to regard in-service education (that part of an educators professional growth that takes place after the beginning of a teaching career) as completely unrelated to both pre-service training and the actual classroom environment within which a particular teacher is working. What is implied in the literature, is a complete restructuring of in-service training so that it can become an integral part of a pre-service, in-service continuum which is directly related to the up-grading of a teacher's classroom performance.

Although the stated purpose of a particular in-service training program might refer in general terms to the up-grading of a teacher's professionalism, the major reason that most teachers actually become involved in in-service training activities is the desire to accumulate the University credits necessary to move them up the pay ladder or up the promotion scale. As Eve recently pointed out, "many school systems and state certification systems inadvertantly encourage this credit accumulation mentality among educators by requiring that a certain number of 'units' be acquired during a given period of time regardless of whether or not the available courses or in-service training experiences are in any way related to the individual needs of the teacher."

In a sense then, we begin to condition teachers during their pre-service training to accept the fact that much of their teacher preparation is unrelated to what actually happens in the classroom. We reinforce this notion when the fledging teacher applies for a teaching credential, so it is not entirely fair to blame our in-service training practices for the emergence of an unit-accumulation mentality within the teaching profession. Nevertheless, teachers very quickly assess the irrelevant nature of most in-service training activities and their understandable reactions range from a resigned tolerance to the avoidance of real growth opportunities where in-service training credit is not available.

The typically inconvenient timing and location of existing in-service training programs very effectively communicate the relatively low value placed on those activities by the school power structure. Most training programs or in-service activities are conducted after school, on Saturdays, and during summer vacation, and the financial compensation for these "extra time requirements" is extremely rare.

In addition to this poor choice of timing, the location for most in-service training activities seems to have been designed primarily for the convenience of the particular trainer involved. Training activities are typically located at nearby universities, in the central office facilities, in some other school and, on occasion, in the same building to which a teacher is assigned; but regardless of the choice, the location is usually inconvenient for the majority of the participants. Implicit within the time placement of in-service training activities after the

students have gone home or during donated time when school is not in session as well as the typically inconvenient location for those activities is the idea that in-service training is a second class activity, not worthy of prime time, financial renumeration, or convenient location.

A third defect in our present in-service training activities, is focused on the inadequacies of most of the in-service trainers. Typical in-service programs feature marginal instructors using inappropriate techniques to communicate irrelevant content. Regardless of where the in-service instructors or trainers are recruited from, we must rapidly change the prevailing practice whereby the in-service trainers have absolute control over the course content and instructional techniques which will be utilized in a particular in-service training program.

This very brief summary of the major defects of our prevailing approaches to in-service training activities shows the irrelevances of content, the inadequacies of instructors, and the inconvenience of time and location. When, in addition, we threaten to withhold promotions or salary increases for teachers who do not take part in such inadequate and inappropriate in-service activities, we encourage the development of a unit accumulation, mentality toward in-service training programs. However, such an attitude should not be surprising where in-service training programs is totally unrelated to the improvement of a classroom's teachers competency.

Training Viewed as Inhibitive

There are a variety of subtle and not so subtle messages which are communicated effectively to teachers new to a particular school system

during their first training session. For example, a typical introductory training session focuses on primarily administrators telling teachers to make sure that the administrative requirements of the school are followed rather closely. Both formerly (from the speakers) and informally (from their colleagues who already worked within the school system) the new teacher is quickly indoctrinated into existing organization structures. Too often school system training programs inculcate an attitude of caution and maintain the status quo (Schein). And, in this way training serves to perpetuate the existing system and prevent the entry of new ideas and innovation.

Once a teacher arrives at a specific school, the formal and informal training continues as the new teacher is acclimated to the sub-group and cluster within that sub-group that she or he will spend most of her working hours with. Very quickly the norms, goals, and attitudes of the group are made readily apparent and the new comer is tested to determine the extent to which the new comers attitudes, values and goals are congruent with the sub-groups. Typically, this social evasion process develops a good cohesiveness and allegiance that ultimately may prove to be a significant barrier to change.

Training Viewed as Facilitative

Training within a school district can be one of the most supportive or as mentioned earlier, one of the most restraining variables of change in that particular school district. Brickell and Quintana and Sexton have related the pre-service training perceived by teachers to their

eventual innovativeness and flexibility in the classroom. Mansfield reached a similar conclusion with regard to the role of training for top and middle managers and influencing their eventual role in the introduction of innovations in business.

According to John Gardner, "a self-renewing institution is based on the concept of pluralism wherein the organization is characterized by variety, alternatives, choice and multi foci of power and initiative." Watson has pointed out that "one of the characteristics of a self-renewing organization is a mechanism within the organization for 'sensing' internal and external changes which call for the creation of new procedures." In various organizations this might be an office for research and development, the use of consultants, or engagement in industrial espionage. "The absence of such an agency to specifically ferret out and ascertain internal or external difficulties before they become critical would probably result in an organization that would not be self-renewing." According to Glock and Palsley the "crucial question in organization renewal where such sensing units are utilized is there relationship to their responsible decision-makers and gate-keepers of the organization."

An Emerging Definition of Training

Most of the approaches to the change process recommended in the literature necessitate the performance of new skills in such areas as comprehensive planning, program management, program development and selection, evaluation, needs assessment, large scale consultation, community interface, decentralization, knowledge utilization, problem solving, diffusion, change

agentry, educational engineering, conflict resolution, intervention, and leader behavior from the superintendent to the teacher to the pupil. These approaches call for a retraining on a massive scale.

In order to better conceptualize the type and kind of training that would be required to adequately suit the needs of educational organizations, Fordyce and Weil provide a definition of training viewed in two ways:

(1) Training in specific skills

A particular employee should have certain skills or knowledge which are important for carrying out his job. In addition, since an individual cannot be an expert in depth in all these fields, it is quite important that he has a clear understanding of when he needs help and where he can get this help. If he fails to realize his interdependence with respect to solving a particular problem, he will probably not call upon the proper resource to help him solve it. Therefore his solution is not likely to be the best one the organization is capable of producing.

(2) Training in Inter-Personal and Group Membership Skills

It is important because of the crucial interdependencies within the organization. An individual is constantly interacting with many people above, below and along side of him in order to carry out his responsibilities. This kind of

> training involves the person developing his capacity to give and to receive help, to communicate and listen effectively, and to deal with people in organizational problems. In order to do this, an essential part of the process is that he critically examines his own theory and assumptions about people, organizations and management.

With the exception of the few cases reported in the literature, most of the training which is being undertaken in school systems or in educational organizations deal almost entirely with training in specific skills. For many organizations undergoing major realignments in their organizational mission, process or structures, it becomes imperative, therefore, that people understand and are prepared to deal with interpersonal and group interactions. Although, for some organizations this may seem initially to be a waste of time and energy, the likelihood of fostering change with minor disruption and dysfunctionalism is great.

The Emerging Profession of Organization Development (OD)

On the basis of the foregoing definition of training introduced by Fordyce and Weil a new and emerging profession has developed over the period of the last 10 years called "organization development (OD)." Briefly, organization development is a process for diagnosing and improving an organizations ability to function. The process (often referred to as "OD") has been adapted to the special systemic properties of schools.

OD in schools usually begins when administrators or staff members invite the interest of an OD consultant. The administrators, some staff members and the consultant agree on guidelines for a planned and sustained effort to apply behavioral science for system improvement ("system" may mean an entire school district or school or department or team of teachers, but the focus is always on improving the way the system works rather than trying to change isolated individuals in the system). After collecting preliminary data, the OD consultant will work with the system manager to develop their own diagnosis of needs and prescriptions for change. At each stage of planning and action, OD relies on the strong participation of all system members.*

Buchannon states that "the function of organization and development programs is to help an organization improve the extent to which it accomplished its intended goals or carries out its function. In the case of the school systems this means improvement of the schools contribution to learning and development of children. But OD also has an objective which goes beyond that of facilitating improvement, and that is to help an organization attain a condition of self-renewal -- to become sufficiently viable to continuously adapt to its changing environment and its own internal forces: thus the concept of organization development rather than improvement. The distinction is similar to that made by educators between learning and learning how to learn. OD, when effective, results in an organization

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* See newly published "Organization Development in Schools," Richard A. Schmuck, University of Oregon and Mathew B. Miles, State University of New York at Albany, National Press Books, Palo Alto, California, 1971

which has processees, norms, procedures, and member skills required for continuous adaptation and thereby continuous optimal fulfillment of its goals."

Small Groups

One of the main strategies employed by organization development practitioners to communicate certain kinds of innovative processees is accomplished within the context of a small group. Mere membership in the group can facilitate an individual acceptance of a message. More simply stated, the group to group discussion methods have been found most useful in the later stages of the communication of change process. Because small group discussions utilize a comparatively high number of "sender resource persons" in relation to the member of uses reached, they are not a practical technique for creating an awareness about an innovation or for arousing interest in it. The one way mass media can adequately handle these functions. However, when a potential user has reached the point of considering the relative merits of his own adoption of the change, when he needs to understand it thoroughly, when he needs answers to his specific questions about it, and when he needs supportive feedback on his newly adopted behavior, small group interaction can be highly effective. Along these lines McKeachie has suggested "that a lecture is more satisfactory than discussion for the mere transmission of facts. But if one is concerned with developing or changing attitudes or with the needs of such changes, that is (moving and refreezing) then discussions have substantial superiority."

The study of small groups is one of the major areas of current research in sociology and social psychology.* Thus, what can be concluded about the study of small groups that has not already been said? Perhaps the first thing that can be said is to reiterate and amplify some earlier comments about the importance of studying small groups. For instance, if an individual were to keep a record of his daily activity, he would probably find that a good portion of it was spent as a member of some small group, either formal or informal. He is, perhaps, a member of a family, a carpool, a work group, a group of work peers, a committee, a bowling team, a lunch group, a golf foursome, a board of directors, and many others. Some of these small groups are tightly organized, others only loosely held together. Some are sub-parts of larger groups, others are autonomous. Some are very important to him, others unimportant. In some, he is frustrated, and in others, he is satisfied.

What do all these groups have in common? Shepard suggests that "they serve a mediating function between people and the larger society of which they are a part. People contact the larger society and in turn are contacted by it, primarily through the small group. The small group helps marshall the persons emotions and his knowledge and thus promotes action on his part. The help results because marshalling emotion and knowledge are partly dependent on experiential knowledge and experiential knowledge is,

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*In the most recent survey of small group research, 1385 articles and books have been referenced, most of which have been published since the mid 1950's. See A. Paul Hare, Handbook of Small Group Research (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1962).

as the name suggests, a function of shared experience. A citizen does not have to vote, and whether he will vote or not depends partly on whether he discusses the election with his wife, his friends, his co-workers and others." Olmsted suggests that "the study of small groups has both its practical and its theoretical rationale. It is useful for finding out how to improve meetings and conferences; and it aides in our understanding of how people inter-relate with one another."

That people manage to cooperate is obvious. It is so obvious, in fact, that we are disposed to think of it as "natural," that is, as being in the nature of things and not requiring any particular explanation -- until something goes wrong. When we reflect on the matter at all, we are likely to echo Aristotle and say that "man is by nature a political animal."

The Third Party or Change Agent

The following section represents a synthesis of the literature on the role of the third party or to put it in more contemporary terms the "change agent" in organization development. (Bennis, Jones, Arch, Lewis, Fordyce and Weil, et al)

The role of a Third Party in organization development is analagous to that of arbitrators, judges, umpires, referees, and mediators, with two important differences. The first major difference is that the Third Party is often introduced to the scene without a recognized set of rules to be invoked and before there is a recognized dispute. In short, the third party in organization development is often called by a group to help it explore its

everyday conduct and to assist it in defining how it wishes to change and how it will go about making the change. The second major difference in roles, and here the role of the Third Party in organizational development comes closer to say the marriage counselor, is to guide the parties toward more self-sufficient behavior in solving their problems, not to make them dependent on him for decisions. In fact, he makes no decisions for anyone except himself. Like skilled managers or other professionals, the trained Third Party or (organizational development consultant, change agent, facilitator), goes about his work without check lists. His functions vary from time to time but generally the functions could be listed as follows: (1) diagnosis; (2) aids in setting goals for change; (3) help to plan strategies to bring change; (4) aids in planning specific steps in pursuing the strategy; (5) monitors meetings and intermeetings when the groups are working sluggishly; (6) takes the risk of saying what no one else feels free to say; (7) he is detached; (8) tries to tie together the parties to the problems; (9) introduces alternatives when conventional views fail; (10) helps to monitor the change process and keep it moving strongly toward strategies and goals. Since the third party actively involves himself in the change process, his skills, and indeed his manner and style are particularly important. He must understand change strategies and be inventive in adapting them to the situation he is in. He must be a highly sensitive listener and observer; he must understand and respond to the organization and his people and not simply to apply a standard cookbook cure. His language, personal qualities and way of working must be acceptable to the organization he is seeking to help. He needs the courage and independence to remain

impartial, hold an honest position and not sell out.

Although the authors have been very explicit in defining and refining between the terms change agent, facilitator, inhibitor, change catalyst, pace-maker, gate-keeper, and linker, they all basically, at least to the practitioner, mean about the same. While the Third Party role is still very necessary, ultimately a growing number of managers (principals) could function as consultants or Third Parties to one another.

According to Havelock, "the university is not the most suitable home for the change agent or Third Party as described above. The weakness of extension services run by universities seems to attest to the unwillingness of the university to indulge in the kind of linkage to practitioners and consumers which comes under the loathed heading of service. There are some kinds of linkage which do come under the university's wing, however. One of these roles is that of the high level expert. He has the credentials and the status within the university and secure enough, that he need not be very concerned about engaging in marginal activities. The other role is that of the applied research attached to universities, centers and professional schools." But many questions need to be raised about the university's role as the Third Party in the change process. Is the university the problem locus for the kind of applied research which is useful to practice and disseminable to practice? Certainly in agriculture this does seem to work through the concept of the university county extension agent. In technology and medicine, it is more difficult to say. In education, even with the recently established R & D centers, the production of useful knowledge seems to be a pityful trickle in proportion to

the investment. Part of the dilemma centers on the difficulty of assessing the utility of knowledge generated within the university "there is no accounting, no assessment of what is done in terms of society, nor is the research administrator at the university under any pressure in this regard. The orientation is inward toward the university and to evaluation by academic colleagues. Productivity is measured in terms of articles in prestige journals not in terms of the number of people helped or the number of people informed." (Havelock)

This brings us to the second issue. Training for the "change agent." At present, training programs for OD practitioners are limited. With the exception of the post-doctoral program conducted by the National Training Laboratory in Applied Behavioral Sciences, the OD practitioners major source of training is other OD practitioners. The development of other programs to train OD personnel and the recognition of these personnel by the consuming public is handicapped by the absence of any general ethic or accepted standards. Most training programs ahve attempted to avoid this confusing state of affairs by simply stating that they will not certify or recognize individuals or as staff members of the Esalen Institute have informally stated several times, "they will not go down to credentializing route."

Then where does this leave the student, educator, or psychologist (or for that matter, the public) who has discovered the real benefits of the laboratory method and who seeks to use it in a competent rather than prefunctory manner? Quite often he has been left to his own devices of attending a lab, some of dubious merit, and then because of other credentials

(masters or doctorate degree in education, psychology or sociology) gets "recognized" by his agency or institution as a trainer. (And, he may be at that in the best sense of the word, or he may be practicing alchemy in the name of chemistry). In a paper presented by Jacke C. Harris* a trend which he sees developing "is that perhaps in order to get on the sensitivity training bandwagon, a number of colleges and universities are referring to members of their psychology departments as trainers, whether they have participated in training laboratories or not. They seem to have developed the flip attitude that Carl Rogers has heartily embraced the T-group and surely every other person who calls himself a Rogerian must now be, ipso facto, a trainer."

What do some others do with this confusion? We find that several colleges and universities have reacted by running their own training programs, each independently mounted each with varying goals, and in no way related to any kind of net work or association that might suggest minimum standards. So, in a sense we have at one extreme NTL which we might call the "Harvard of the training of trainers" and Esalen, which might be called the "antioch of the training of trainers", with a vast unknown reason between the two. What has resulted, therefore, is a variety of approaches, all unrelated.

Bennis agrees that much more needs to be said about the training

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*Jacke C. Harris, Director Graduate Program in Community Leadership & Development Springfield College, Springfield, Mass. -- Paper presented at the third New England Conclave for Applied Behavioral Scientists. New England Center for Continuing Education, Durham, N.H. January, 1970.

of the competent organization development practitioners. "The first generation of any new profession is always the most gifted and the most erradic. This is certainly true of organization development practitioners from my advantage point. Others I'm afraid can possibly jeopardize the growth of organization development in the usual ways that new professionals become vulnerable: through routine hackwork, malpractice, and ethical blunders." Bennis' main concern is that "we educate and then develop the next generation of organization development practitioners." In this same context, Havelock argues for the need to develop a new curriculum in our schools of education. Specifically, to design and develop training programs for change agents. Havelock sees at least four elements that would have to go into such a curriculum: "(a) an understanding of the knowledge dissemination and utilization process as a whole including some awareness of various models of planned change, empirical stress which have been done, and research methods for studying it; (b) an understanding of how to work with client systems including strategies for collaboration, help on diagnosis of needs, and help in self-evaluating of effort; (c) an understanding of the resource system including the depreciation of research values, concerns and methods, and a review of knowledge storage and retrieval methods of tools; and (d) an appreciation of the need of role complimentarity and coordination in the fulfillment of dissemination objectives."

Some Research Studies on Training and the Change Process

In order to determine whether or not any differences exist between teachers and principals in their perceptions of who should take

leadership role in handling specific tasks in elementary school settings, a study indicated why disagreement relative to twenty five tasks and moderate disagreement relative to twelve additional tasks. Areas in which disagreement was most apt to be found between teachers and principals perceptions were those in which the principal works indirectly with building personnel in the area of administrative supervision (Noak).

Similarly, (Fine) examines contemporary and future roles of schoolboards in American education. He offers the reader an unique view of the schoolboards role through a vehicle of fictional characterization of schoolboard-community relations during a controversy. He also suggests that present school boards are often unable to meet pressing educational needs. He also suggests enhancing the planning, problem solving, and policy making contributions of the school board in the future. Suggestions assume optimum circumstances in the following areas: (1) school board recruitment; (2) superintendents role; (3) teachers role; (4) teacher and student and community participation in educational programs; (5) finance; (6) research and resources; and (7) school district size.

A leadership training program which was funded under ESEA Title III and was designed to train school-based in-service leaders to implement a teaching behavior improvement program in their district is discussed by Hoehn. Suggestion is made of possible grouping of particlpatns, materials, equipment, physical arrangements, and other logistics for conducting leader training conferences.

One author states that the progressively growing social unrest and discontent in various areas of the United States attests to the absence of effective local community leadership development programs. Disregard for the established authority suggests an immediate and urgent need for major attention to the development and implementation of local community leadership development programs. To be effective, these programs must begin at the "grass-root" level (Cassel).

An organizational development (OD) program used to aid organizations in accomplishing tasks was designed to include several schools and the total administrative hierarchy of a school district. In the OD project a control group of those not involved in the program and an experimental group of those practicing in OD were established. The study basically was designed to determine the effect of an OD program on social-emotional climate of the classroom in a junior high school. The data seems to indicate that organizational development will change teacher behavior to more student-centered activities (Bigelow).

One author describes in a report how he introduced his facilitative role in organizational development at Thornlea School with the following two statements: "Most organizations have a structure that was designed to solve problems that no longer exist. But, I am less interested in including any particular change than I am in fostering and nourishing the conditions under which constructive change may occur" (Croft). In one sense, Croft's work at Thornlea could be classified as an in-service training program, but as the case developed the training was found to be of a very different kind from that which school people are accustomed to or even acquainted with.

Studies have indicated that for complex problems offering many alternatives, decisions produced by group interactions are usually far superior to decisions produced solely by individuals. To achieve consentual decision-making, organizational development must take effect through some formal training (Schmuck).

In a paper prepared by Langmeyer he describes procedures, exercises, methods, and sequences, in data used by authors in organizational training with schools and school districts. The author contends that the focus of intervention should be on organizational interactions of role occupants, not on personalities.

As a result of a five day training laboratory attended by 28 elementary principals, data reveals more positive changes by principals in experimental groups than those in the control groups and show that laboratory training and interpersonal relations affects positively, administrative behavior with his staff and socio-emotional climate of the school (Thomas). In a related study designed to examine job related interpersonal behavior changes of elementary school principals as a result of laboratory training, the following results were observed. Experimental group showed more change toward one being considerate to individual needs of staff; (2) use of tact; (3) a more collaborative approach to decision-making; (4) increased leadership for improving staff performances. Staff of the experimental group principals showed more change toward higher group morale and their schools changed toward a more flexible organizational climate (Thomas).

In a report prepared by Schmuck, a study is described which was designed to test whether improved organizational problem solving could be produced

in a school faculty by training in inter-personal communication skills. Training intervention in a junior high school used exercises designed to increase awareness of interpersonal and organizational processees. Rather than attempting to improve personal development of individuals, the goal was to increase affectiveness of the faculty as a working body. Issues that were thwarting the organization from functioning effectively included (1) insufficient role clarity of principal, vice principal, counselors, and department coordinators; (2) failure to draw on staff resources especially between academic departments and (3) low staff involvement and participation at meetings and committees. Post-training questionnaires point to a favorable improvement in organizational effectiveness as a result of the training.

CHAPTER 4

INSTRUMENTALITIES OF CHANGE
TRAINING STRATEGIES AND TACTICS TO BRING ABOUT CHANGE

This chapter attempts to synthesize a set of pragmetic strategies and tactics which may serve as useful change instrumentailties in the process of changing behaviors in organizations. Strategies and tactics are treated and defined as tools to be used by "change agents" and not as models or a grant conceptual scheme. Certainly as discussed in Chapter I, there is a level of abstraction or analysis in organizational theory where strategy can and should be examined within the grand terms of a broadly designed model of change. As reported in the previous chapters, change involves numerous "actors" of which researchers have only isolated, identified, and defined a few. As the literature stressed before, planned change requires compatible and supportive working arrangements among these actors. This means that they should share common values, beliefs, and attitudes and be willing to work cooperatively toward pre-determined goals. If not, they can easily be working at cross purposes.

Most of the literature reported herein advocates that the most effective way of bringing about change within organizations is through joint participation of all interested parties. What is hardly ever mentioned, however, is that nearly everything that is attempted in the process of change occurs in the setting of the meeting. Meetings are one of the principle ways in which change occurs. Thus, within the contextual framework of meetings, the following chapter attempts to synthesize* various "training" strategies

*In particular from case studies reported in Fordyce & Weil, 1971, Managing With People; Bennis, 1969, Organizational Development and Developmental Efforts of Richard Beckhard - M.I.T., 1971

and tactics which have recently been claimed sufficiently standardized and predictable to be considered part of an emerging technology for human systems generally known as organization development.

MEETINGS FOCUSED ON DIAGNOSIS OF THE EXISTING SITUATION

I. The Managers Diagnostic Team Meeting Series

The purpose of the managers diagnostic team is to make a periodic assessment of an effectiveness of an organization and to entertain the need for and the possibility of change (Fordyce & Weil). The team may meet once or several times. Within the educational setting, the team could consist of:

- The principal or an assistant principal
- A third party from outside the organization
- A staff assistant or assistants with organization-wide responsibility such as an administrative or business manager

A team may be enlarged to include representatives of various levels of the organization. (e.g., teachers, curriculum supervisors, guidance personnel). The team may also enlist the temporary membership of others, perhaps a teacher consultant for the school district or a representative from another school within that district. The reason a manager's diagnostic team is a team rather than an individual is that nearly all organizations are too complex for any one individual to understand. The team meets to pool information on the state of health of the organization and possibly to recommend general change goals and strategies. The team

undertakes to gather information by sensing or interviewing or questionnaires and instruments. The team meets again to consider the collected data and to adjust the general change goals and strategies for action. The managers diagnostic team may evolve into a steering committee for a long-term organizational development effort.

Uses

As an aid to the top manager -- in this instance, the principal -- in examining the health of his organization (in a large and complex organization one cannot do it alone). As a routine, periodic assessment of the need for a change.

Benefits

Improves the chances of timely change by bringing together experts in diagnosis with persons intimately acquainted with the organization.

Prompts an organization toward routine self-examination.

Limitations

The role of the diagnostic team is limited. It can only stimulate an organization to consider change. If the members are so unwise as to pry secretively or as a team take on executive powers, they are apt to arouse the hostility of managers, planning groups, and so forth with the result that fortifications will quickly spring up on what was formerly parkland.

Operating Hints

Roles: No executive powers. No formal fact finding powers except as these may be jointly shared with the managers involved.

Frequency of Meetings

Once or twice a year

Team Members

Persons respected in the organization who are strongly interested in change.

2. The Confrontation Goal Setting Meeting*

A large number of persons usually 40 to 100 from one organization in this instance, a school and its principal, meet for about a day to set goals for change. The meeting has two parts: (1) information collecting and (2) goal setting. A follow-up meeting must be scheduled.

Information Collecting

Information Collecting begins with a description of meeting procedure, followed by a hearty bit of encouragement to frank discussion. Attendees divide into sub-groups of five or six individuals from different parts of the organization. The sub-groups are given about an hour to arrive at a list of changes that would both please them personally and also benefit the organization. The meeting is open to suggested changes in any area: objectives, organization structure, relationships, management style, procedure,

*This type of meeting was developed by Richard Beckhard of Richard Associates and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology

performance, formal and informal policies. The sub-groups prepare their change lists on chart pads and present them to the total group with sufficient commentary to make themselves clear. There is no debate at this time. The changes proposed on the list are sorted into general categories by the meeting leader or leaders.

Goal Setting

Each participant receives a copy of all the item lists and a list of the categories. The total group then takes part in classifying the proposed changes into categories. The group then divides again, but at this time each key manager meets with those attending from his own organization. These sub-groups undertake three tasks:

- To select the three or four items most important to them and determine what action they will take and when they will start.
- To select the items to which they believe top management should assign highest priority.
- To plan for communicating the meeting results to others in the organization who are not in attendance.

The total group then reconvenes to hear each sub-group report with chart pads. There is a time for discussion. The top manager makes a decision in this instance, the principal, even if a preliminary one with respect to each item referred to him. Plans are laid for follow-up meeting.

Follow-up

The follow-up meeting, normally five to six weeks later lasts about two hours. Each organization group and the top manager report progress on

their change items. Follow-up steps are agreed upon.

Uses

For a fast, general overhaul of an organization especially in time of stress.

Advantages

Speedy.

The individual becomes more optimistic about working for change because he has more influence over changes and because his own personal needs and goals are legitimized.

Many persons and several levels of management can participate in such a meeting; consequently, the method rallies both deep and broad support for change.

It is credible and it makes sense for those involved.

It doesn't require the level of third party skills needed for a team building meeting.

It can bring about major, sometimes even dramatic improvements.

Limitations

The chances are the method won't work well if:

- There are serious unresolved differences among members of the top management team attending the meeting. In this instance unresolved differences between the principal and the assistant principals.
- Management is not truly committed to the objectives or mode of the meeting.

- There is insufficient trust among attendees to sustain a reasonable level of candor.

The method isn't likely to bring to light or deal with deep or hard to handle issues of management style, performance, relationships and so forth. In this sense, it may be viewed as more superficial than many other methods, but this fact also reduces dependence on skilled third parties. An advantage is that it tends to bring to light only those issues which the group is prepared to confront at this time.

Operating Hints

Key managers at the meeting:

They must understand the format and the objectives and willing to go along with the procedure.

Meeting Introduction

Must tell the entire group of the upcoming procedure. Deal with the need for candor. Legitimize personal as well as organizational needs and goals; allow time for discussion.

Setting Up The First Sub-groups

Two ground rules: (1) include a representative of each department present; (2) don't be in the same sub-group with supervisors.

Meeting Arrangements

Must provide reasonable, uninterrupted privacy for sub-groups.

Third Party or Change Agent

Not vital for this type of meeting. However, presence of third party makes people feel safer about raising controversial topics. The third party can also set standards of behavior. He can, for example, check a principal or curriculum coordinator or assistant principal who may belittle earnest complaints. He may also help modify the days plan to meet the needs of the particular meeting.

Follow-Through

Is necessary

3. The Family Group Diagnostic Meeting

The principal and his immediate work group or reading supervisor and reading teachers, etc., need to conduct a general critique of their performance. The principal can start the reaction by suggesting categories in which he wants to collect information. For example:

- Planning
- Achieving goals
- What do we do best
- What do we do worst
- How are we working together, that is management style, how do we deal with conflicting points of view, how we do at helping each other and asking for help
- Are relations up, down or sideways

The manager, may offer these categories at the meeting or, better still before the meeting, so that the attendees are able to find

out the opinions and sentiments of their own groups. A variety of efforts may be used to collect information including total group discussion, sub-grouping, "fish bowl," collages or drawings. The information collected is discussed and grouped by themes and the next action such as a Team Building Meeting is planned.

Uses

In advance of a team building meeting, as a warm up to build an agenda. To help a group decide what change steps if any they want to commit themselves to.

Benefits

Awakens an adventurous interest in the possibilities of change.

Starts a sharing of the management load.

Prompts more open discussion of problem and relationships

May effect some changes in individual behavior, though these are apt to be temporary if there is no follow-up in reinforcement

Flexible; easy to adapt to any group

Quick

Limitations

It is only a beginning

It doesn't accommodate a very large group

It may raise other issues than time permits

Operating Hints

Size of group: up to about 30

Time: 2 to 4 hours

Place: Undisturbed

People often express a strong preference for working in the total group. This is usually less efficient than sub-grouping. Emphasizes listening and understanding. Discourages criticizing and defending. In holding such a meeting, there is commonly an implied promise for further action. The manager should be prepared to follow-through. A recommended sequal to the Family Group Diagnostic Meeting is a Team Building Meeting.

Third Party

If the group is new to organization development and nothing definite is planned beyond this meeting, a third party may spell the difference between going ahead and remaining stagnet. Common reasons why groups do not proceed further on recognized team problems is that they do not know where to go. The third party or change agent, therefore, can offer choices.

4. The Organization Mirror

An Organization Mirror is a particular kind of meeting that allows an organizational unit to collect feedback from a number of key organizations to which it relates within the educational setting we would find students, parents, school boards, community people; or, staff, from another school system. The meeting closes with a list of specific tasks for improvement of operations, product, or services.

Sequence of Events in an Educational Setting

Introduction by the principal

Review of interview data by Third Party

Outsiders discuss and interpret the data; insiders listen to and take notes

Insiders attempt to discuss what they heard the outsiders say and identify issues needing clarification

General discussion to summarize what is happening

Four task sub-groups each comprising both outsiders and insiders, identify the five most important changes needed to improve the effectiveness of the organization

Reports from sub-groups

Total group synthesis lists

The four task sub-groups develop a plan and specific action on items for change

Meeting summary -- Each task group reports plans and action items persons responsible and reporting dates

Principal concludes meeting by reviewing days work and assigning remaining action items

Uses

When an organization has progressed in team building, a natural next step is to improve relations with important outside groups. Particularly useful for staff service groups (e.g., State Departments of Education, Educational Service Centers, even USOE).

When an organization is being by-passed

When things seem "too good"

When a group receives no information about its performance

When a group receives undeserved criticism

When ability to perform is impaired by other groups

When interface problems embrace a number of other groups

Benefits

Provides feedback simultaneously on a number of sources in a systematic way.

Permits a setting of priority and planning through both the organization.

Image and effectiveness

Often converts critics to helpers

Converts "bellyaching" to constructive action

Limitations

A complex and demanding procedure that entails some risk of negative outcome.

Typically requires much effort in follow-through.

The process requires careful planning, management and commitment.

Takes more than a couple hours.

Needs a skilled third party.

Operating Hints

Should allow enough time (one or two days).

Meetings should be planned carefully and cleanly divide the time into segments. As the meeting progresses, some provisions should be

made to provide latitude for schedule changes, but should not allow for planned segments to blur.

The inside and outside groups should be about the same size. The total group should not exceed 20. Outsiders should be selected carefully. They should be people who are influential and respected in their organizations, who may have some insight into the problems, who are willing to spend the time, who are constructive and articulate but not argumentative. Outsiders should come from groups with whom the school or educational agencies have a considerable amount of interaction.

Encourage both positive and negative feedback. Avoid working troublesome individual relationships. Record results of all meeting segments on chart pads. Identified action items should be clearly posted for all to view. Meetings should not be used only to collect feedback but to go through the entire cycle of joint planning and execution of changes. A commitment should be made as to a time and method for reporting progress to everyone. Consideration should be given to inviting the outsiders back at a later time to evaluate progress and give assistance.

MEETINGS FOCUSED ON ALTERING AN EXISTING SITUATION

1. FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Forced field analysis is a tool for analyzing a situation that requires change. It helps to alter a condition in an organization with a minimum of effort and disruption. The method presupposes that any situation is in a state of equilibrium at any given moment; that is, the forces acting

to change the condition are equally counterpoised by the forces acting to keep it the same. An individual, or preferably a group, begins the analysis of a given situation in which change is desirable by identifying all the driving and restraining forces and by assigning arrows to them. For example, if the teachers in a group have a generally progressive philosophy of education it might be described as a force. This is a driving force having some effect throughout all levels of teaching method, but the more teacher centered the current method, that is, the lower the level of equilibrium, the greater pressure this force would exhert toward increasing the amount of teacher-pupil planning. Sometimes we might find that the administration in a school is hesitant to make changes because of the administrative procedures involved. However, once changes are decided upon, they may take a very active part in seeing that they are carried through. The hesitancy to make change might be represented as a restraining force which reverses its direction when the change is decided upon and becomes a driving force when the change has been initiated. Thus, the two examples show us different kinds of forces we might discover in particular situations. They may be either driving or restraining forces in either direction, or varying strengths, and defective throughout the entire field or only a portion of the field. All of these characteristics help us to do a thorough analysis of the present condition. This type of analysis of the equilibrium of change was developed by the late Kurt Lewin in a pioneering article "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method, and Reality in a Social Science" (June, 1947).

Uses

When starting a change effort

When there is some confusion about where to go from here

Benefits

Boils the problem down to a "do-able" size

Opens up new options for action

Can be used by an individual or a small or large group

Helps a group of people get on the same "wave length"

Limitations

Results depend upon quality and completeness of analysis

Sometimes seems over analytical

Operating Hints

The current equilibrium condition should be clearly defined and the desired end results should be determined.

People should be pressed to identify as many forces as possible. The method may appear silly at first.

Tests should be made to see if the analysis includes motivation of influential parties, policies and procedures, the nature of individual needs and habbits, outside forces, administrative practices, financial and material resources, and so forth. After the analysis has been completed an implementation plan for the proposed change should be prepared. This plan should include (a) the necessary events that must occur (b) a time table of events (c) names of the relevant people who can help (d) responsibility for

implementing the sub-parts (e) coordination of the sub-parts (f) provision for feedback and evaluation.

2. SENSITIVITY TRAINING LABORATORIES

The National Training Laboratories of the NEA (now renamed the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science) has developed several models for improving the problem solving capacity for individual groups, organizations and communities. These "laboratory programs" stress the development of greater openness and interpersonal competence as the pre-requisities of both affective problem solving and meaningful innovation by individuals and systems. The laboratory may be conducted for individual self-renewal (stranger labs) or for team and system development (cousin and family labs), and they may be conducted on-site or at off-site "retreats." The most elaborate laboratory strategies employ all these variances in various combinations.

At the heart of most "laboratory" training programs is the T-group or sensitivity training group. T-group training is preliminarily designed to help participants more fully realize their own potential for improvement and to enhance their ability to work with others. Basic to this training in organization is the belief that the development of affective team work is, at the very least, a pre-requisite of organizational improvement. This does not mean that the focus is solely on group processees; rather, there can be multiple foci; self-insight, interpersonal relationships, group processees, the characteristics and problems of organizations and the

dynamics of change. T-groups can be conducted in many different ways, although some common elements have been identified (Bradford and others, Schein and Bennis). They are usually unconstructed with regard to agenda, goals, speakers, and even length, in order to facilitate learning. Willingness to indulge in self-inquiry and experimentation is encouraged by relative freedom to do and say what one wants. The leader or trainer of a T-group behaves passively, taking a permissive non-authoritarian and sometimes almost completely non-participating role. By refusing authority the leader thus presumably encourages group members to define and solve their own problems. Bennis and Shepard point out that one of the principal bstacles to valid communication is orientation toward authority (Bennis and others). In a T-group, however, the "authority" role is rejected by the "leader" himself: the group is thereby forced to establish norms and procedures for it is without regard to the presence of an authority.

Whereas the two training methods previously mentioned concentrate on what goes on inside the organization the sensitivity training group uses the on-going interaction of the people in the group as "data" to be analyzed by the group. To use this "here and now" data in a constructive fashion, the group first must build an atmosphere of mutual supportiveness and trust, what Schein and Bennis called "psychological safety." Thus, with the supportiveness and permissiveness of the trainer as a model, the group members must develop openness and supportiveness toward one another. As members to varying degrees undergo the transformation from the formal, status load, interpersonal, role defining world to a climate of informal, trust, and equality, the "group building", that are opposed to learning first

hand spontaneously the value of full and open interpersonal communication. The paradigm can be seen in terms of three steps: (1) unfreezing all behaviors and attitudes, learning behaviors and beliefs and freezing the new behaviors and beliefs into the permanent repetoire of the participant. Transformance of T-group learning back to the organization setting is a major problem (Bradford and others). The setting of the T-group is a free and open climate; however, what is useful behavior in this type of climate may not be useful behavior in the organization. Although David has made some important strides in overcoming the barriers to application of T-group training in the organization, questions about the possible limitations of this training in application to the organization has still to be completely resolved. Insights about self, others, group processees, and organizational characteristics are presumably of value for facilitating knowledge flow and an implicit goal for all T-groups is improved communication (Bennis and Shepard; Miles and Bennis and others). Nevertheless, some recent and exhaustive reviews of the literature on this topic (House, Campbell and Dunnette) leave room for considerable doubt about the feasibility of transfer of training back into the organizational setting. According to Campbell and Dunnette, examination of the research literature leads to the conclusion that while T-group training seems to produce observable changes in behavior the utility of these changes for the performance of individuals in their organizational roles remains to be demonstrated.

3. THE GRID PROGRAM

The Grid is a training program created and promulgated by Blake and Moulton for emphasizing the importance of interpersonal relations and

of past performance as dependent major contributors to organizational effectiveness. The goal of this program is to change patterns of relationships among members and groups so that more effective problem-solving and decision-making can occur throughout the entire organization. The term "grid" comes from a diagram Blake and Moulton used to depict types of leadership styles. The objective of the program is to train leaders who have a high concern for people as well as a high concern for task assignments. Or to put it another way, leaders who show high concern for their subordinates as social beings as well as for high performance in organizations. There are six phases to the training program. The first phase is a behavioral science "laboratory" where general problems and concepts of interpersonal relationships are discussed. The second consists of team training where members of organization sub-units work together to apply the behavioral science knowledge to their own group. Problems of knowledge flow, influence, decision-making and authority are among those handled. The third phase concentrates on improving information flow among sub-units of the organization: that is, creating linkage among groups. Thus, inter-group problems are surfaced and processed. The fourth phase concentrates on the establishment of new goals of the organization and its sub-units. The fifth step is the implementation of plan change toward new goals. The sixth and final phase, stabilization and review, occur.

4. SURVEY FEEDBACK

Organizational survey research can be applied directly as a training and organizational development program through a method known as "survey

feedback." As developed by Floyd Seaman and his associates, this procedure includes a systematic collection of data from the membership of the organization on a wide range of issues including supervisor perceptions, work motivations, aspirations, communication patterns, and satisfaction. This data is summarized and fed back to administrators and their subordinates as a means of confronting serious human and managerial problems. Such a procedure has been found to stimulate discussion and subsequent production problem solving behavior. The method has been applied in numerous business and government settings with considerable reported progress (Mann and Likert). In one reported application in a school system it had mixed results (Bennedict and others).

A survey feedback program when used most effectively can do things for the organization. It can (1) identify general problems in the organization and its various sub-units; (2) make organization members aware of the problem; (3) help identify the causes of weaknesses; (4) create an environment for discussion of the deficiencies recorded in this survey; (5) facilitate finding solutions and weaknesses. Likert has also suggested that a well constructe survey instrument can detect the presence of a problem before it reaches major proportion. He therefore, recommends that organizations institute a regular procedure, periodic surveys to facilitate a continuous process of self-renewal.

5. ROLE PLAYING

Role playing is a technique for gaining and understanding of our selves as others see us and of others as they see themselves. It has

achieved wide popularity among a number of fields of practice, and it is particularly useful as a facilitator of change. Rather extensive research, notably that dedicated to change smoking behavior, has demonstrated the effectiveness of the technique of role playing and discussion. Given the topic of lung cancer caused by cigarette smoking, those who role played a cancer patient became significantly more opposed to smoking than did an equivalent group who merely listened to the tapes of the discussion session. The crucial variable which makes the role playing experience such an effective impetus to change, seems to be that the participant improvises his own arguments in support of the assigned inclusion. The mechanism of improvisation necessitates involvement and, apparently transforms outer conformity into inner conformity (Janis and Mann and King and Janis).

On the basis of the foregoing examples, it is perhaps important to point out several factors which need amplyfing. First of all, most of the tactics briefly described represent some "tools of the trade" in a new and emerging profession known as organization development (O.D.). Bennis, defines O.D. as "an educational strategy adopted to bring about a planned organizational change." The basic value underlying all organization development "theory" and practice is that of choice. Bennis points out that through focused attention and through the collection and feedback of relevant data to relevant people, more choices become available and hence better decisions are made. O.D. as an educational strategy employs the widest possible means of experienced-based behavior in order to achieve more and better organizational choices in a highly turbulent world.

Second, is the characteristics of the Third Party or "change agent." For the most part, but not exclusively, they are external to the client system. Certainly, during the initial stages of any planned change effort, outside change agents are necessary. This is true for a variety of reasons, not the least of which is the conventional wisdom that an outsider carries more weight. The external change agent, however, is perhaps more capable of seeing with more innocence and clarity the problems which insiders may have long learned to avoid or overlook and most certainly regard with anxiety.

Whatever the arguments pro or con that can be made with respect to the issue of internal vs. external change agents, Bennis concludes that "the debate becomes meaningless after the beginning stage, but throughout the early phases of any organizational development program, an external change agent is deemed essential."

Third, organization development is not simply sensitivity training. To be sure O.D. practitioners rely to a greater or lesser extent on experience-based educational programs. And some variant of sensitivity training is frequently used. The important thing about O.D. says Bennis, is that data are generated from the client system itself.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY

What can be concluded about the literature review that has not already been said? How shall the preceeding material be tied together and promising leads be indicated? In this chapter, therefore, I depart somewhat from the literature review format in order to present some of my own observations on training and the change process. Perhaps the first thing that can be said is to reiterate and amplify some comments about the nature of change in education.

Education has recently entered into a period of massive and irreversible change. The catch word is innovation and the financial support and investment level has been relatively high and steady from the Federal government, non-profit foundations, and private industry. Even though these disparate groups have a variety of motives as the basis for their interest in changing education, their united interest and investment of capital resources in innovative approaches to the solution of persistantly unsolved educational problems, has already exerted a subtle but significant change on the leadership roles within education. Without really understanding how to carry it out, and often without realizing why they are doing it, educational leaders across the country have taken on the mantle of innovation. As Katz puts it, "one of the problems of contemporary reform is that people talk past each other, or else only to those already converted. The amount of good dialogue remains small." Or, as Eve has stated, "administrators talk incessantly about their federal projects, their real or imaginery

affiliations with national known innovators or their contacts with numerous public or private change agencies. As they strive to increase their visibility, the burgeoning ranks of instant experts have added their voices to those rare individuals who know what they are talking about and the combined general clammor for innovation has exerted its pervasive influence throughout the educational literature as well as virtually in all of the educators conventions and conferences held during the past decade."

Implicit within the current preoccupation with educational innovations, is a reshpaing of the traditional educational leadership roles. Leadership suggests a source of improvement in education and since the measurement of that improvement is basically a matter of assessing the degree to which learning experiences have become more effective over a given period of time, improvement in education of necessity involves change. When viewed in this manner, it becomes relatively easy to focus on an educational leader's emerging role as a change agent.

Often an administrator (principal) within a school system is totally unaware of his role as a change agent even where he loudly professes his belief in the latest educational innovations, and this lack of awareness of the strategies involved in improving education ultimately leads him into trouble. We call it a school system, but we don't treat it as one. The school board meets to deal item by item with a laundry list of things." Each item is taken up, and examined in seriatim on its own terms. The daily calender of the overworked school administrator is typically a similar melange of "items to handle." He moves expeditiously as he can from one to the next, having little time to reflect on how they impinge on each other

or on "yesterday's or tomorrow's calender of things."

The Need for Workable Behavioral Concepts

As we are always painfully aware, schools are no longer quiet refugees away from the main stream of life. The historic, century long shift of schools from a sort of nice, genteel "frill" to their present status of central importance in our society has had a profound effect on the job of the school administrator. Today the administrator deals with pressures and problems, the nature and dimensions of which plagued only management executives in business and industry a few years ago. More important, as is more clearly understood than ever before, the purposes and goals of the school are among the most urgent priorities of our time.

Everywhere is evidenced a seething discontent with the status quo, much of which is attributable to the daily routine of organizational existence. The situation becomes more obvious with each new survey, each feature piece in a magazine, each television "special" on the topic: individuals are cuaght in faceless, dehumanizing organizational "juggernauts" which relentlessly apply bureaucratic rules and demand that individuals yield to the needs of the organization. School administrators as a group have too often over-emphasized organizational structure at the expense of proper utilization of people. Much has been said among school administrators producing non-gradedness, team teaching, demand scheduling, or other structural reorganizational plans. But little consideration has been given to the development of lower-profile, less-pyramidal organizations in which teachers set standards and exercise control. Few school principals give serious

thought to proposals which emphasize more effective involvement of teachers in significant problems or the central decision of the school, partly because they view teachers as ill-equipped or unwilling to take on such serious responsibilities.

Brickell is one of the very few professionals who have had the audacity to say publicly what is widely accepted by teachers: teachers are, generally, powerless to innovate; they are, generally, involved in programs of change only after administrators have set goals and generally have made other critical decisions about proposed changes; and teachers do, too often, feel that their involvement is mere "window dressing" -- they sit on useless committees where their proposals are subject to the veto of budget wielding "powerful administrators." Is it any wonder that the organizational behavior of teachers is so frequently mocked by withdrawal, apathy, and disenchantment.

So, the vicious circle goes, with administrators deploring apathy and high staff turnover and calling for better teachers who will stay on the job longer, yet holding tight to the reins of organizational power and shoring up the traditional concepts of supervision. Research and organizational behavior makes it clear that these ends are mutually exclusive.

Concepts stemming from recent research in organizational behavior can offer guidelines to solutions, although we must bear in mind that translating these findings of research or more correctly perhaps, the concepts developed from research findings in organizational behavior into

directly usable form is, at the present time, often impossible.

Role Conflicts

Administrators tend to think of academic people in "ivory tower terms," and often for good reason. A noted behavioral scientist, speaking about organizational climate to a conference of elementary school principals, was asked about the nature and extent of his first-hand experience in school administration. Since he had never actually been an administrator, the scientist was somewhat flustered by the implication of the question, and responded that since he was a scientist it was not necessary for him to "get down in the muck and mire" of the schools to carry out his studies; his research data could be gathered by others and then brought to him for analysis. Actually, he was probably right in the limited sense he intended. But his unfortunate choice of words conveyed to the principals the traditional antagonisms which have long existed between researchers and practitioners in administration. Needless to say, the administrator behavior of these school principals were greatly influenced by that conference.

The literature on management and organization has many such allusions to the traditional antagonisms between researcher and practitioner. In every field, whether it be business, industry, the military, or education, researchers are constantly being criticized by practicing administrators. Those who are on the "firing-line" demand that researchers formulate something "useful" and that they discuss it without resorting to jargon. The researcher, however, is inclined to feel that the administrator is

actually looking for gimmicks and is primarily concerned with temporary aids rather than genuinely searching for meaningful solutions.

On the other hand, since organizational research is conducted with the cooperation of administrators -- or at least at their sufferance -- the administrators demands tend to carry much weight. The researcher who is concerned with producing "useful output that can be applied in the school situation faces a new hazard when he leaves academia to venture into the schools for this purpose: he can seem to be condescending and judgmental -- neither of which attitudes helps in his work with the practicing administrator.

The conflict then seems to be one of role relationships. It certainly does not expedite the development of school organizations. Researcher and administrator can more profitably be viewed as professional specialists who are partners in a team relationship. Each has his role to play and they are complementary roles and each has a contribution to make. It seems, therefore, that if this kind of relationship can be established, one of the difficult roadblocks to putting research findings to work in the schools will be removed.

The Need for Translation

As Owens suggests "in order to put new concepts to work in schools, these concepts must be communicated to the school administrator. Language is a problem; the researcher is constantly striving for precision in his use of terms and he seeks new terms which are, for him, descriptive of new insights. As he hedges, perhaps appropriately, with qualifying terms, he is inclined to use technical statistical terms, and often tends to

avoid advocating a course of action which might exceed the limitations of his data. There is a genuine need for more "digestible" non-technical research reporting to the administrator. Yet, it is difficult to adequately communicate much that is really new or complex in the compressed form that many administrators desire. And this difficulty is compounded if as is often the case, the administrator is so caught up in his administrative duties that he has not been able to keep pace with the general trend of organizational behavior in recent years."

Generally speaking, however, and this may be declining over time, school administrators have little formal training in research design and methods. To the extent that this is true, the communication problem is considerably more difficult to overcome. Many administrators, particularly those with elementary school backgrounds, took heavy concentrations of education courses in both undergraduate and graduate programs of study. Moreover, not only was training and research often lacking, but little attention was devoted to courses in the behavioral sciences, particularly courses offered outside a school or department of education. School administrators are not alone however, in the present day need to keep up with developments that were not anticipated in their undergraduate days. Their counterparts in business, industry, and other organizations are under similar pressure.

The Need to Internalize

As educators are well aware, "knowing about" organizational behavior does not necessarily have much observable effect on that behavior.

Many of us are aware of the implications of human relations and group dynamics -- we have read the books and can discuss the topics knowledgably -- few can use this knowledge fully. For instance, one may find cases whereby a professor who thought he was an authority on human relations and taught the values of group decision-making in participative supervision for many years. Yet, among his faculty colleagues he was often spoken of as being unpredictable and hard to get along with. Frequently, we have not internalized what we know -- we have not made it a part of the way we live. This is particularly true in matters dealing with behavior -- matters of interpersonal relationships -- we have learned to be less open, less cooperative. For emotions are involved in these kinds of decisions and we have learned to conceal or shy away from free and open consideration of emotional issues in organizational life: everyone is supposed to be mature and able to get along with others. Yet, it frequently happens that the individual is not fully aware of the effect of his own behavior on others when he is dealing with matters concerning behavior. The commonly observed discrepancy between what a person "knows" and the way his behavior affects others is a phenomenon often observed in the behavioral sciences.

The Need to Not Generalize

Over-generalizing is at least partly the result of the administrators constant search for solutions, for something "useful" -- by which he frequently means something that can be "taken off the shelf", when "plugged into" his organization, will "work". When we deal with organizational

behavior, however, we deal with an incredibly complex set of variables and relationships involving emotions, values, personality make-up, and the dynamics of interpersonal relationships. Over-generalizing by applying the same prescriptions to all schools ignores unique factors in each school situation. Sherman contends that the only realistic approach -- in view of the present state of the art -- is "pragmatism," which he defines as "doing what works in a particular situation." This he says, "does not mean throwing out theory. It means, rather, knowing and using theory to the extent that it works, but not using it when it doesn't. Otherwise, pragmatism degenerates into nothing more than trial and error."

These, then, are some of the major problems which administrators must be aware of when they put theory in research-based concepts of organizational behavior to work in their schools. But, how can we make use of what is being discovered and made available? It must be evident to the reader that, at the present stage of the game, he cannot expect much in the way of prescription. He can, however, find guidelines which can be used to help him make his own decisions.

Team Training

If we look on the school as a social system (Chapter I --- Various Change Models) then a strategy of change must aim at changing the entire system, not merely part of it. In virtually every school, some faculty members have gone on sabbatical for specialized training at one time or another. But, as so often happens upon the return of these faculty members to the school -- with the same old problems -- they are

unable to get many new ideas introduced. The behavioral explanation for this seems to be that the system itself has not been changed. The people and their problems are still there: the same communication blockage, the same clinging to traditional values, and so forth, which tend to keep the system in its homeostatic, steady state.

A strategy for creating far greater impact is to expose an organizational team to simultaneous training. In the business world this has traditionally meant transporting an administrator and his key subordinates to an out of town setting that is conducive to quiet thought and reflection. There, with the help of a third party or change agent, they spend a weekend or a few days trying to think through their problems and make plans for overcoming them. Unlike the classroom situation, there is no teacher, and the subject studied and their problems. Upon their return to the organization, the team is still intact and continue to try to face their problems as they did during the training session. Since they were all together during training they are also on the same "wave length" back in the organization.

Temporary Systems

A factor that is partly responsible for the slow pace at which organizations adopt new practices and, in general, change, is that organizations simply do not have adequate energy or resources to devote to the change process. The organizations struggle to obtain the goals set for it, plus the need to maintain the functioning of the organization as it

exists leaves few resources for innovative practices. Time, people, money, and other resources are usually allotted to making present operations work as well as possible and in meeting the continual crisis which arise.

It has been pointed out that our conception of an organization is usually that of a permanent system: a church, school, or a corporation. These are durable, on-going structures. However, in our society we do use a wide variety of temporary systems to serve special purposes.

Miles, lists conferences, games, tasks force, research projects, parties, performances of the lively arts, and even carnivals as some of the many kinds of temporary systems for which we find frequent use. Of these, some temporary systems provide expressive outlets for people and a certain respite from the daily routine of organizational life. Others, such as ad hoc committees, scientific expeditions, and political campaign committees are created to accomplish particular tasks on a short term basis. A third type of temporary system is useful for inducing change in a permanent system and can be most effective in putting concepts of organizational behavior to work in schools.

One of the characteristics of a temporary system is the expectation that it will exist for only a limited time: this fact can be utilized to facilitate attaining the objectives of the system. Temporary systems may be used to bring about changes in the behavior of individuals or of groups; that is, we can focus on one teacher, or a work group within the school or an entire faculty. Most of the training strategies and tactics described in Chapter 4 would come under the heading of Temporary Systems.

Training and the Change Process?

Perhaps the main observation is that in its present state and form, the literature contains little that is readily and dependably usable by the practicing school administrator in the task of administrating for change. Most of the approaches recommended in the literature necessitate the performance of new skills in such areas as comprehensive planning, project management, program development, and evaluation, needs assessment, large scale consultation, community interface, decentralization, knowledge utilization, problem solving, diffusion, change agentry, educational engineering, conflict resolution, simulation, synectrics, leader behavior, etc. from the superintendent to the teacher to the pupil. These approaches call for retraining on a massive scale. However, few formal training programs for these skills exist. Currently such training programs that do exist are largely on an ad hoc basis. But if training remains on this basis, potential for improvement will remain just that, namely potential. It may be premature to construct a curriculum for these skills because few of these skills have been operationally defined, but it is not premature to consider the nature and source of the training.

Several authors are somewhat pessimistic that universities, in conjunction with practitioners, will establish and provide such programs. As seen from my staircase in the "ivory tower" some universities are already preparing themselves.* For others, it is hard to say. Perhaps the most promising venture in the development of training designs is the notion of

*For instance, a new training program is being developed at Ohio State University in conjunction with various school systems and educational agencies throughout the country for training professional evaluators.

Training Laboratories suggested by the recently assembled Task Force '72 group out of USOE-BEPD.*

Briefly, "these laboratories would be part of an organizational structure for teacher education and would contain the equipment and materials for the evaluation of trainee performance. In addition, the Training Laboratories would collect and transmit data pertinent to competency-based certification, would participate in the field testing of instructional materials, would evaluate the success of pre-service and in-service training against the criteria of classroom performance and would participate as examination centers for the Educational Specialty Boards." Individual Laboratories might be located in universities or schools; school university consortia might make application for the installation of training laboratories in both schools and universities; and state or city education agencies might plan for the distribution of clusters of Training Laboratories on a state-wide or a city-wide basis. Although the Training Laboratories are still largely at the "drawingboard" stages and require congressional approval, the potential is great.

As a concluding comment, therefore, I offer the following. There have been so many criticisms of the educational system that educators must look with dismay upon the seemingly endless orations. They stand in the arena, faced with the immediate task of education on the one hand, and an army of critics on the other. Ortega's reflection on this disparate

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*See final report "The Power of Competency-based Teacher Education" prepared by the committee on National Program Priorities in Teacher Education, USOE-NCERD--Project #1-0475. Grant #OOEG-0-71-2849. 1971

division of labor is revealing:

> Bull-fight critics stand in rows,
> Crowd the enormous plaza full,
> But only one is there who knows,
> And he's the man who fights the bull.

Yet, not all of the volumes of criticisms are valueless; many are sincere efforts to help further the aims of education. From the first years of the republic, most notably in Jefferson's administration, education has been proclaimed a paramount national concern. Rephrasing Clemenceau's memorable dictum on generals and war, then, the burden of education is too important to be bourne solely by educators. At issue is the national investment in the most profoundly important asset of all: our human resources.

In any case, the preceeding observations on the literature were made constructively and with due respect for those who man the arena, while we observe.

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